



2014 CENTER FOR ARMY LEADERSHIP ANNUAL SURVEY OF ARMY LEADERSHIP (CASAL): ARMY CIVILIAN LEADER FINDINGS

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Ryan P. Riley
Josh Hatfield
ICF International

Jon J. Fallesen
Katie M. Gunther
Center for Army Leadership

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The Center for Army Leadership

Mission Command Center of Excellence, U.S. Army Combined Arms
Center

Christopher D. Croft
COL, LG
Director

Leadership Research, Assessment and Doctrine Division
Fort Leavenworth, Kansas 66027-2348
Jon J. Fallesen, Chief

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2014 Center for Army Leadership Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL): Army Civilian Leader Findings Executive Summary

Purpose

The Center for Army Leadership (CAL) conducts an Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL) on the quality of Army leadership activities and the effectiveness of leader development experiences. Since 2009, survey administration has also included Department of the Army civilians. CASAL has been a dependable source to inform senior leaders about the level of leader quality and any upward or downward trends. The information affords leaders the option to make course corrections or take advantage of strengths and opportunities. CASAL results inform groups such as the Chief of Staff of the Army (CSA) Training and Leader Development Conference, Army Profession and Leader Development Forum, Human Capital Enterprise Board, Army Learning Coordination Council, as well as special studies and initiatives.

Method

Standard scientific approaches are used for survey development, sampling, data collection and analysis. Survey items are chosen based on past usage, input from stakeholders and development of new issues. The 2014 data collection extended from November 20 through December 15, 2014. Random sampling identified 25,255 Army civilians to be invited to take the survey, of which 6,468 participated for a response rate of 25.6%. The sampling included both Army civilian leaders and followers to ensure representative upward assessments of leadership. A successive screening approach to identify civilians in leadership positions resulted in a final sample of 1,879 managers, 2,493 first line supervisors, and 2,096 non-supervisory employees. Sampling practices produced results with a margin of error of +/-1.4% for the 39,233 Army civilian managers and supervisors representing the Army population of civilian leaders. With assessments from non-supervisory employees, the margin of error is +/-1.2% for the population of 236,707 Army civilians. Data analysis includes assessment of percentages by supervisory level, analysis of trends, comparisons across experience and demographics, coding of short-answer responses, correlations and regression analyses. Secondary source data are consulted to check and clarify results. This report discusses Army civilian leader findings and serves as a companion document to the technical report of CASAL military findings (Riley, Hatfield, Freeman, Fallesen & Gunther, 2015).

For most items, percentages are used to summarize the level of responses and show trends across time. As a starting point, results are considered favorable if the positive response choices (e.g., effective plus very effective) sum to 67% or greater. Unfavorable levels are considered to be negative categories with 20% or more responses. Across the years that CASAL has been administered several patterns have emerged as a backdrop to understand specific findings.

- Group percentages indicating favorability of leadership and leader development increase with the supervisory level and length of service of the respondent.

- Civilian leader ratings of their superiors' effectiveness tend to be less favorable than ratings by uniformed leaders.
- The data also confirm that items assessed by CASAL are not equally applicable to Soldiers and Army civilian leaders because of differences in policies and conditions of military service and federal employment.

Summary of Civilian Leader Findings

The following sections provide summaries of the key topics assessed for Army civilian leaders.

Working Environments

Civilian leaders are positive about the environments in which they work. About four-fifths of managers and first line supervisors hold favorable attitudes towards organizational factors such as the ability of their unit/organization to perform its mission, effective collaboration of team members to achieve results and commitment to performing at a high level. A majority of civilian leaders assess their organization's climate as supportive of effective leadership, learning and development (e.g., unit members enabled to determine how best to accomplish work, allowed to learn from honest mistakes, encouraged to try new and better ways of doing things). A less favorable indicator is that one in three civilian leaders report workload stress is a serious problem, a persistent challenge that is not improving. While stress has a verifiable negative impact on leader well-being and work quality, seeking help for stress-related problems is better accepted and encouraged than it was in 2011.

Satisfaction and Commitment

Civilian leaders continue to demonstrate strong commitment to their teams and immediate work groups, agree their assigned duties are important and hold pride in being a member of their organization. About half of civilian leaders report high morale while one in four reports low morale. These results show improvement after a marked decline observed in 2013, which was undoubtedly linked to the fiscal climate of the federal government and especially the Department of Defense. In 2013, Army civilians experienced pay and hiring freezes, budgetary constraints and furloughs. While morale has re-stabilized in 2014 with levels observed prior to 2013, the drop in career satisfaction shows only modest improvement. The decline in career satisfaction spanned from a high of 88% in 2009 to a low of 74% in 2013 and increased slightly to 76% in 2014.

Leadership

Civilian leaders are rated favorably by subordinate civilians across all leadership attributes (ADRP 6-22). The highest rated attributes at 75% or more of the civilian leaders rated effective are *Technical Knowledge*, *Expertise in Primary Duties*, *Confidence & Composure*, the *Army Values* and *Self-Discipline*. The lowest rated attributes at below 70% of civilian leaders rated effective are *Total Fitness* (physical, health, psychological, spiritual, behavioral and social),

Innovation and Interpersonal Tact. The ratings of leadership competencies are moderate to strong. Civilian leaders are rated most favorably in behaviors such as *Getting Results*, *Preparing Oneself* and *Stewardship of the Profession*. Developing subordinates is a persistent area for improvement for both civilian and uniformed leaders. Since 2009, only 52% of civilian leaders have been rated effective at developing subordinates. Other areas falling below a threshold of two-thirds favorable responses include building effective teams (61%), *building trust* (60%), *leading by example* (62%), *leading others* (63%) and *creating a positive environment* (64%). Results indicate that the demonstration of effective leadership attributes and competencies by civilian leaders makes a significant and positive difference to organizational and subordinate outcomes, such as team cohesion and individual motivation, work quality and commitment to the Army.

Trust

Conceptually, trust is the basis for effective relationships between leaders and those they influence. Civilian leader trust-building is positively associated with subordinate motivation, work quality and commitment. From 75% to over 90% of Army civilians hold moderate, high or very high trust in their subordinates, peers and superiors. CASAL results show that trust is high in organizations that enable members to make decisions pertaining to their duties, allow and encourage learning from honest mistakes, encourage new and better ways of doing things and uphold standards (e.g., professional bearing, adherence to regulations).

Mission Command

About two-thirds of respondents assess their civilian leaders effective at demonstrating behaviors reflecting the principles of mission command. Civilian manager and first line supervisor familiarity with mission command doctrine (ADP 6-0) remains low and has not increased over the past year. However, favorable implementation of mission command is indicated by ratings that civilian leaders experience favorable levels of trust, feel empowered to work with relative autonomy, and are allowed to innovate. Civilian leader attitudes toward organizational climate characteristics that are conducive to effective mission command show a positive trend compared to 2013 results.

Civilian Leader Development

Civilian leader development continues to occur at moderate levels in the Army. Managers and first line supervisors favor the development they receive through operational job experiences and self-development over formal education opportunities. Consistent with past assessments, informal practices (such as opportunities to lead others and on-the-job training) are viewed as having the largest positive impact on the respondents' development as leaders. A notable change occurred from 2013 to 2014 with ten percent fewer civilian leaders rating their job experience effective for developing higher levels of responsibility.

Civilian leader engagement in their subordinates' development continues to show room for improvement. Civilian leaders tend to view development as activities that subordinates are referred to or directed to do (e.g., online training, resident education, and self-study). About half of civilian leaders are rated effective at developing their subordinates through methods described in leadership doctrine (e.g., assessing developmental needs, providing feedback, and creating or calling attention to leader development opportunities). Performance counseling (formal and informal) occurs inconsistently and the perceived impact on development remains low, with only 42% agreeing the counseling feedback was useful for setting improvement goals. Twenty-eight percent of civilian leaders receive counseling only at rating time, while 13% indicate they never or almost never receive it. Most civilian leaders only occasionally or rarely seek or ask for developmental feedback from others. Less than one-third of civilian leaders currently have a mentor (27%); twice as many (54%) indicate they provide mentoring to others. Of those who receive mentoring, 71% rate it as having a large or great positive impact on their development.

One in five civilian leaders (21%) reported having been assessed through the Multi-Source Assessment and Feedback (MSAF) program. Three out of four assessed civilians indicate the experience was effective or very effective at increasing their awareness of their strengths and developmental needs, and half rate it effective for improving their unit or organization. Civilian leader attitudes toward the effectiveness of the MSAF program as a developmental tool are significantly more favorable than active duty uniformed leader attitudes.

Self-Development

A majority of civilian leaders indicate they have participated in self-development in the past year, though the impact remains moderate. Civilian leaders primarily report engaging in professional reading, conference attendance, networking or interacting with others, working to improve or develop a skill and taking continuing education courses. Only one in three civilian leaders (37%) agrees there is sufficient time available to complete self-development in their current position. Time available and high workloads lead many civilian leaders to engage in passive methods of self-development, such as completion of required mandatory training.

Civilian Education System (CES)

A majority of civilian managers and first line supervisors (84%) have completed the required Supervisor Development Course (SDC) while only half (53%) have participated in other CES courses. More than half of civilian leaders (59%) rate institutional courses as effective or very effective in developing them for higher levels of leadership or responsibility. A majority of CES graduates rate the quality of the education they received as good or very good (72%), though many (37-48%) believe having received the education earlier would have benefitted their current duties. Courses continue to receive moderate ratings in their effectiveness for improving leadership (53% rating effective or very effective). More than two-thirds of CES resident course graduates rate instructors effective at modeling doctrinal leadership and providing effective leadership feedback to learners. The level of rigor or challenge posed by all

courses shows room for improvement, particularly courses offered entirely via distributed learning (DL). The Supervisor Development Course (SDC) is viewed as relevant to the current duties of civilian and uniformed supervisors who complete it, though less than half rate the course effective at improving leadership. The two courses that fall below a two-thirds threshold of favorable response on the relevancy of course content to one's current job are the Foundation Course and the Advanced Course.

Summary and Conclusions

Army civilian leaders effectively demonstrate key leader attributes like the Army Values, expertise and composure; show strong commitment; and have pride in their work teams and organizations. Army civilian leaders for the most part hold favorable attitudes towards the ability of their organization to perform its mission, achieve effective collaboration among team members, and are committed to performing at a high level. A majority of civilian leaders assess their organization's climate as supportive of effective leadership, learning and development. However, other organizational indicators show that civilian leaders increasingly grapple with workload stress, fewer experience career satisfaction, and fewer see developmental value in their job experiences.

Less than two-thirds of Army civilian leaders effectively display key leadership requirements such as *leading subordinates*, *setting the example*, building effective teams, *creating a positive environment*, and *developing subordinates*. Developing others has consistently been the lowest rated of ten leadership competencies since civilian leaders were first assessed by CASAL in 2009. Furthermore, civilian leaders who rate their immediate superior ineffective at developing others are not more prone to be proactive in seeking developmental feedback for themselves, finding mentoring or engaging in self-development. Across all civilian leaders, 26% engage in mentoring, 36% have assessed their leadership using MSAF, and 36% indicate they have sufficient time for self-development. Only about 55% of civilian leaders view their immediate superiors as effective at assessing developmental needs, coaching subordinates, or providing developmental feedback.

Leadership development among Army civilian leaders is not tied to programmed promotions, and there are no provisions in organizations for back-fill or added manpower to cover dedicated developmental or educational experiences of civilians. Thus the incentives for development are not as embedded among Army civilians as among uniformed leaders. While development for civilians is a responsibility of supervisors and the individual, development needs to occur through those activities that best fit the conditions of civilian employment. Multi-source assessment, supervisor job feedback, and within-job stretch assignments are very accessible choices for civilian development. The Army's new doctrine on leader development, FM 6-22, provides guidance on these three activities among others, and provides considerable information on what aspects of leadership to assess and what developmental actions can be chosen and completed.

At the same time that development for civilians is below desired levels, skills at the basics of leading also fall below a two-thirds level of Army civilian leaders being effective. Leaders not meeting subordinates' expectations for how they lead and not engaging in the development of subordinates' leadership skills means that development is left to the individual or occurs inadvertently.

Two basic routes can be taken to reverse the situation. Army civilian education courses can be evaluated regarding the impact they have on leadership improvement and ways identified to reach more civilian leaders. Army civilians and supervisors of civilians can work together to understand core leadership requirements and how to improve in those areas. ADRP 6-22 and the new FM 6-22 on Leader Development can guide these efforts, along with materials like those available through Army eLearning, the FORSCOM leader development toolbox and the MSAF Virtual Improvement Center. Time available for development and motivation to improve are key factors that need to be considered. A grass-roots approach by supervisors and employees to adopt a proactive mindset for development should help reset high levels of job satisfaction and engagement and help the Army increase its edge in human capital.

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2014 Center for Army Leadership Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL): Army Civilian Leader Findings

Introduction

This report discusses Army civilian leader results of the 2014 CASAL, and is meant to serve as a supporting document to the technical report of main findings (Riley, Hatfield, Freeman, Fallesen, & Gunther, 2015). In 2005, CASAL was established by the Center for Army Leadership (CAL), Combined Arms Center (CAC), to assess and track trends of leader perceptions on leader development, the quality of leadership, and the contribution of leadership to mission accomplishment. Since 2009, survey administration has also included Department of the Army civilians. The 2014 CASAL was administered to 25,255 Army civilians, of which 6,469 participated for a response rate of 25.6% and an overall margin of error of +/-1.2%. Findings for Army civilian leaders are addressed in three areas:

- Quality of Leadership
- Climate and Situational Factors within the Working Environment
- Quality of Leader Development.

Demographics

The sample of Army civilians that responded to the 2014 CASAL reflect the Army civilian workforce with regard to gender and ethnic origin (Office of the Assistant G-1 for Civilian Personnel, 2013). The reported education level of survey respondents exceeded the levels of the DoD workforce, with 30% holding bachelor degrees (compared to 24% of population) and 38% holding graduate or professional degrees (compared to 12% of population) (Defense Civilian Personnel Advisory Service, 2012).

Fifty-nine percent of the respondent sample (63% of managers; 59% of first line supervisors; 55% of non-supervisory employees) previously served in the military. The average tenure of civilians in their current organization was 127 months; average time in current position was 67 months; average time in current grade or pay level was 79 months; and average time reporting to current leader or supervisor was 36 months.

There were two points at the beginning of the survey that required respondents to indicate whether or not they were in a position represented by a bargaining unit and/or union. Data were not collected from respondents who indicated bargaining unit or union membership

because the Federal Service Labor-Management Relations Statute excludes supervisors from being included in a Federal sector bargaining unit.

Determination of Supervisory Status

The 2014 CASAL sampling plan included Army civilian managers, supervisors, and non-supervisory employees. A random sample was drawn from a current population database of all Army civilians based on a supervisory status variable and excluded Senior Executive Service (SES). Prior to conducting data analysis, CASAL determinations of supervisory status relied on a combination of self-reported data (i.e., position, GS level, supervisory responsibilities) to determine civilian supervisory cohort membership. Similar to previous years, a multi-step process that examined consistency of responses on survey items was used.

A civilian leader is defined as an Army civilian who holds direct supervisory responsibility for other Army civilians and/or uniformed personnel. For the purposes of this research, civilian leaders are classified into one of two groups: managers or first line supervisors. To be included in one of the supervisory cohorts, civilian respondents had to respond 'yes' that they directly supervised subordinates (either civilian or uniformed personnel or both) and provide the number of direct-report subordinates they supervised (greater than zero). Respondents who also indicated their direct-report subordinates were supervisors themselves were classified as managers, while those who indicated their subordinates were not supervisors were classified as first line supervisors. Respondents who indicated they did not hold supervisory responsibilities were classified as non-supervisory employees. As a final determining factor, an item on the survey asked respondents to select a response that best represented their current position. These responses included short definitions of supervisory responsibilities, and were used to classify any remaining respondents not yet classified due to missing data for the other items.

The result of this successive screening approach defined three civilian cohorts for whom data were included in the analyses discussed in this report. Findings on civilian leader development include assessments by managers and first line supervisors (civilian leaders). Findings on civilian leadership effectiveness also include assessments by non-supervisory employees (civilian followers).

- Managers – supervise direct reports who are also supervisors (N = 1,879)
- First line supervisors – supervise employees that are non-supervisors (N = 2,493)
- Non-supervisory employees – do not hold supervisory responsibilities (N = 2,096)

Data Analysis Methods

CASAL includes items that capture both quantitative (select choice) and qualitative (short answer) responses. Most multiple choice items ask participants to respond on a scale of 1-5, where 5 is the most favorable (e.g., very effective, strongly agree) and 1 is the least favorable (e.g., very ineffective, strongly disagree), with a neutral middle point (3). To ease the interpretation of results, the five point response categories are collapsed into three point scales. For example, responses of '5' (strongly agree) and '4' (agree) are collapsed and reported as the percentage of respondents who "agree or strongly agree." Thus, most charts in this report display the percentage of favorable, neutral and unfavorable responses for an item or rank group. The assessment of leadership in this report focuses on civilian respondents' ratings of other civilian leaders. A section on satisfaction with military and civilian leadership briefly covers the ratings of military members whose immediate superior was an Army civilian and civilians whose immediate superior was a military leader.

A useful rule of thumb in analyzing CASAL data is the two-thirds favorability threshold, whereby item results that receive two-thirds or more favorable response (e.g., 67% agreement or effectiveness) are considered positive. Items where favorable response falls below this threshold and/or receive 20% or more unfavorable response are considered areas for improvement. Similarly, a 6% difference in results between years is a useful guideline for identifying meaningful change over time. While these rules of thumb may be applied as general guidelines to data interpretation, each item warrants its own consideration. Several factors impact the interpretation of item favorability and change, including the sampling error for each sub-group, cohort and component being examined, and in some cases, variation in the way items are worded between years. Additional statistical analyses are performed to aid in the interpretation of the survey domains and to draw out higher level meaning across items.

Organization of Findings

The primary purpose of this report is to summarize CASAL results for Army civilian leaders. To accomplish this objective, discussions of assessments by non-supervisory civilian employees are included in select places to provide a more complete examination of the quality of civilian leadership. The last section of this report, the quality of civilian leader development, only includes consideration of managers and first line supervisors, cohorts determined through the screening process described above.

For ease of interpretation, item findings are generally presented as percentages of favorable, neutral, and unfavorable ratings. Within each sub-section of this report, key findings are

highlighted in text and summarized in call-out boxes. Each major section of the report ends with a short summary that provides a recap of the most important findings.

Where appropriate, trend comparisons are made to CASAL findings reported in past years (Riley, Hatfield, Fallesen, & Gunther, 2014; Riley & Fallesen, 2013; Riley, Conrad, & Keller-Glaze, 2012; Riley, Keller-Glaze, & Steele, 2011; Riley & Steele, 2010). Comparisons to CASAL results pertaining to attitudes, opinions and ratings of active duty uniformed leaders are made when useful or for confirmation (Riley et al., 2015). Statistically significant differences between these groups, where relevant, are referenced in footnotes throughout this report. CASAL findings are also supplemented with results from other surveys that have assessed similar topic areas. Two recent survey initiatives that assessed factors common to CASAL are the 2014 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (United States Office of Personnel Management) and the 2013 Army Civilian Attitude Survey (Civilian Personnel Evaluation Agency, 2013a; 2013b). Results of these surveys are discussed where applicable.

1. Quality of Leadership

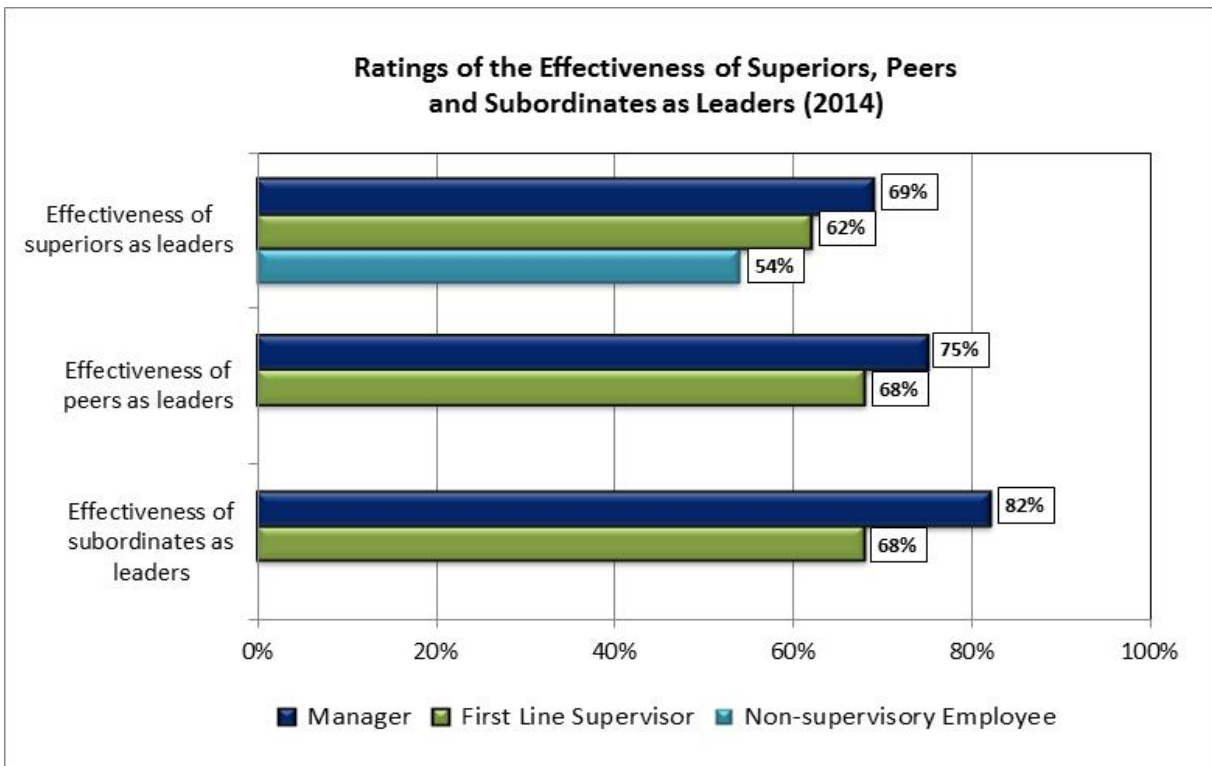
This section discusses CASAL results for several perspectives of leadership performance and quality. The quality of civilian leadership was assessed through ratings of effectiveness for superiors, peers and subordinates as leaders; overall levels of satisfaction with civilian and military leadership; and assessments of one's immediate superior or supervisor as a leader. Leadership performance was examined through existing doctrinal frameworks including the Army core leader competencies and the leader attributes.

1.1 Perceptions of Leader Quality

Attitudes toward the quality of leadership in the Army continue to be generally positive. The 2014 CASAL found that a majority of Army civilian leaders rate their superiors, peers and subordinates as effective leaders (see Figure 1). Non-supervisory civilian employees report more critical assessments of their superiors as leaders. The disparity in favorable ratings between these cohorts is a pattern consistent with past CASAL findings.

- More than two-thirds of managers (69%) rate their superiors as effective leaders. In comparison, smaller percentages of first line supervisors (62%) and non-supervisory employees (54%) view their superiors as effective.
- A majority of managers and first line supervisors view their peers as effective leaders (75% and 68%, respectively).
- Eighty-two percent of managers rate their subordinates as effective leaders, compared to 68% of first line supervisors. These differences are not unexpected as first line supervisors oversee non-supervisory civilian employees who are less likely to hold formal leadership responsibilities.
- A positive finding is that overall, small percentages of Army civilian leaders rate their peers (9%) and subordinates (5%) ineffective as leaders. Upward assessments are slightly less favorable, as larger percentages of managers (17%), first line supervisors (20%) and non-supervisory employees (25%) rate their superiors ineffective as leaders.

Figure 1. Effectiveness of Superiors, Peers and Subordinates as Leaders as Rated by Managers, First line supervisors and Non-supervisory employees.



Satisfaction with Military and Civilian Leadership

Since 2013, CASAL has assessed cross-cohort satisfaction with the quality of leadership in the Army (i.e., uniformed respondent satisfaction with Army civilian leadership and vice versa). In 2014, 61% of civilian managers and first line supervisors are satisfied with the quality of military leadership in their current organization, while 19% are dissatisfied. Army uniformed respondents show comparable levels of satisfaction with the military leadership in their unit or organization (62% satisfied; 21% dissatisfied). Smaller percentages of both civilian leader respondents (59%) and active duty uniformed respondents (55%) are satisfied with the quality of the civilian leadership in their current organization. Dissatisfaction toward civilian leadership quality is found among 21% of uniformed leaders and 24% of civilian leaders (see Table 1).

Notably, the results presented in Table 1 only reflect the current levels of satisfaction with leadership by Army leaders (civilian managers and supervisors, and active duty officers, warrant officers and NCOs). In comparison, non-supervisory civilian employees report slightly lower levels of satisfaction with military (55%) and civilian (49%) leadership, and comparable levels of dissatisfaction (19% and 28%, respectively).

Table 1. Satisfaction with the Quality of Military and Civilian Leadership in the Army.

CASAL Respondents	Quality of Military Leadership in Current Unit/Organization	Quality of Civilian Leadership in Current Unit/Organization
Active Duty Uniformed Cohort	62% Satisfied (65%)	55% Satisfied (57%)
	21% Dissatisfied (18%)	21% Dissatisfied (19%)
Army Civilians (Managers and First Line Supervisors)	61% Satisfied (65%)	59% Satisfied (61%)
	19% Dissatisfied (17%)	24% Dissatisfied (20%)

*Results of the 2013 CASAL (percentages) are displayed in parentheses for comparison.

When active duty respondents' ranks are matched to Army civilian grades, comparisons provide a more accurate examination of leadership satisfaction. For example, active duty majors, lieutenant colonels and colonels correspond to Army civilian grades GS 13 to GS 15. Seventy-six percent of those field grade officers are satisfied with the quality of military leadership, and 65% are satisfied with civilian leadership. Civilian leaders in grades GS 13-15 report the same levels of satisfaction as shown in Table 1 for all civilian leaders. Over 90% of active duty field grade officers have an immediate superior of military rank while 8% report to an Army civilian. Nearly three-fourths of civilians in grades GS 13-15 have an Army civilian as an immediate superior, and 26% have an immediate superior of military rank.

- A larger percentage of field grade officers are satisfied with military leadership than with civilian leadership (76% vs 65%) in their unit or organization.
- About the same proportion of GS 13-15 Army civilians are satisfied with the quality of military leadership as they are with civilian leadership (61% and 59%).
- Larger percentages of field grade officers than GS 13-15 civilians are satisfied with military leadership (76% vs 61%) and with civilian leadership (65% vs 59%).

These results reflect broad but useful indicators of Army leader attitudes toward the current quality of leadership. Compared to results of the 2013 CASAL, the reported levels of satisfaction with either type of leadership are lower for both civilian leader (-2% to -4%) and Army uniformed (-2% to -3%) respondents. CASAL did not ask respondents to specifically identify reasons for their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with leadership quality. However, a useful method for understanding what influences levels of satisfaction is by identifying relevant factors that have the strongest associations.

A series of analyses were performed to further understand the factors that significantly contribute to satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the quality of military and civilian leadership in the Army. Of particular interest was whether the same factors affect within-cohort ratings of satisfaction (e.g., Army civilian leader satisfaction with civilian leadership) compared to cross-cohort ratings (e.g., Army civilian leader satisfaction with military leadership). Multiple

regression analyses¹ were conducted to examine respondent attitudes toward several characteristics of their working environment, their current states (e.g., morale), and ratings for the effectiveness of superiors and peers as leaders.

Results indicate that about half of the factors examined explain a significant amount of variance in the ratings of satisfaction for both military and civilian leadership. As was found in the 2013 CASAL, the proportion of variance accounted for by the key factors was notably higher for within-cohort (i.e., civilian respondents' satisfaction with civilian leadership and military respondents' satisfaction with military leadership) compared to cross-cohort satisfaction (i.e., AC respondents' satisfaction with civilian leadership and civilian respondents' satisfaction with military leadership). Respondents' perception of the quality of their superiors was the greatest contributor to their level of satisfaction with the quality of both military leadership and civilian leadership in their unit or organization. Other factors associated with satisfaction with civilian and military leadership include: respondents' perception of the overall level of trust among unit members; the perceived quality of respondents' peers as leaders; agreement that standards are upheld in the unit or organization; and respondents' current level of morale. The key factors that explain a significant amount of variance in leaders' ratings of satisfaction are presented by cohort in Table 2.

Results of these analyses show that the factors examined (e.g., characteristics of working environments, quality of leaders in the unit, respondents' current morale) explain a significant amount of variance in ratings of satisfaction for both civilian and military leadership. Further, these factors explain more variance for within-group ratings of satisfaction with leadership (i.e., civilian respondents' satisfaction with civilian leadership, $R^2 = .64$, $p < .001$) compared to cross-group ratings of satisfaction (i.e., civilian respondents' satisfaction with military leadership, $R^2 = .48$, $p < .001$). This finding also extends to uniformed respondents within-group ratings ($R^2 = .71$, $p < .001$) compared to cross-group ratings ($R^2 = .31$, $p < .001$). These findings also suggest that both civilian and uniformed leader satisfaction in the quality of leadership across cohorts is influenced by other factors not examined by CASAL.

¹ Multiple regression analyses were conducted using the stepwise method and examined the following variables to determine their impact on satisfaction with the quality of military and civilian leadership: agreement that respondent is proud to tell others they are a member of their unit; agreement that respondent is confident in the ability of unit/organization to perform its mission; agreement that members of unit/organization are committed to performing at a high level; agreement that members of unit/organization are allowed and encouraged to learn from honest mistakes; agreement that members of unit/organization work collaboratively to achieve results; agreement that standards are upheld; disagreement that discipline is a problem in the unit/organization; overall level of trust among unit members; specific levels of trust in subordinates, in peers, in immediate superior, and in superior two levels up; severity of stress from high workload; effectiveness of peers as leaders; effectiveness of superiors as leaders; respondent's current level of morale; and respondent's agreement that he/she is committed to his/her team or immediate work group.

Table 2. Factors that Explain Significant Variance in Active Duty and Army Civilian Leader Satisfaction with the Quality of Military and Civilian Leadership.

Army Civilian Respondents		Active Duty Uniformed Respondents	
<i>Factors Impacting Satisfaction with Military Leadership</i>	<i>Factors Impacting Satisfaction with Civilian Leadership</i>	<i>Factors Impacting Satisfaction with Military Leadership</i>	<i>Factors Impacting Satisfaction with Civilian Leadership</i>
Effectiveness of superiors as leaders	Effectiveness of superiors as leaders	Effectiveness of superiors as leaders	Effectiveness of superiors as leaders
Trust in superior two levels up	Overall level of trust among unit members	Overall level of trust among unit members	Agreement standards are upheld in unit
Respondent's level of morale	Effectiveness of peers as leaders	Unit members empowered to make decisions	Effectiveness of peers as leaders
Agreement standards are upheld in unit	Trust in superior two levels up	Respondent's level of morale	Respondent's level of morale
Trust in immediate superior	Respondent's level of morale	Effectiveness of peers as leaders	Overall level of trust among unit members
Proud to identify with unit	Agreement standards are upheld in unit	Agreement standards are upheld in unit	Trust in immediate superior
Effectiveness of peers as leaders	Trust in immediate superior	Trust in superior two levels up	Trust in subordinates
N/A	Trust in peers	Lack of discipline problem in unit	N/A
$R^2 = .48, p < .001$	$R^2 = .64, p < .001$	$R^2 = .71, p < .001$	$R^2 = .31, p < .001$

Results of the 2013 Army Civilian Attitude Survey provide additional indications of civilian leader satisfaction with the quality of leadership in Army organizations. The survey found that while 64% of civilian supervisors and 56% of non-supervisors agreed they have a high level of respect for their organization's senior leaders, smaller percentages (51% of supervisors, 43% of non-supervisors) were satisfied or very satisfied with policies and practices of their senior leaders. Two-thirds of civilian supervisors (68%) and more than half of non-supervisors (56%) agreed their organization's leaders maintain high standards of honesty and integrity. Smaller percentages (52% and 43%, respectively) agreed leaders generate high levels of motivation and commitment in the workforce (Civilian Personnel Evaluation Agency, 2013a; 2013b).

Civilian Leader Effectiveness

CASAL results show that a majority of Army civilian respondents who have civilian supervisors² hold favorable perceptions about their supervisor's effectiveness as a leader. As a broad

² CASAL data show fewer instances of Army civilians reporting to a uniformed leader supervisor (n=1,304; 22% of civilians) and vice versa (n=404; 6% of active duty leaders). Specific results for these working relationships are not included in this discussion.

indicator, nearly two-thirds of Army civilians (64%) agree their immediate superior is an effective leader, while 19% disagree. Further, 22% rate their immediate superior as 'best or among the best' and 34% rate them 'a high performer'. Their judgments were made in comparison to other leaders in a similar grade or position. Twenty-four percent view their immediate superior as 'middle of the road' compared to others, while 11% rate them 'a marginal performer' and 7% rate them as 'worst or among the worst'. Results for each of these indices of immediate superior effectiveness have remained consistent since first assessed in 2012.

The results of the 2013 Army Civilian Attitude Survey show similar attitudes toward civilian leadership effectiveness. Specifically, 77% of civilian supervisors and 70% of non-supervisor respondents agreed or strongly agreed that their immediate supervisor/team leader was doing a good job. These levels of agreement toward supervisor job performance remain unchanged from assessments in 2006 (Civilian Personnel Evaluation Agency, 2013a; 2013b).

A majority of civilian leaders are also viewed as having a positive effect on their organizations and their subordinates. More than half of civilian respondents indicate their civilian immediate superior has had a positive or very positive impact on subordinate work quality (62%), motivation (56%), and commitment to the Army (55%); and on unit/team discipline (56%) and cohesion (56%)³. Between 9% and 19% of civilian leaders are rated as having a negative or very negative effect on any of the above mentioned outcomes. Additionally, civilian respondents who view their immediate superior effective as a leader also tend to indicate their superior has had a positive impact on each of these outcomes ($r = .72$ to $.82$, $p < .001$). The levels of favorable response for these indicators of leadership effectiveness have remained fairly consistent since first assessed in 2011.

1.2 Leadership Requirements Model

CASAL serves as the benchmark for assessing Army leader effectiveness in demonstrating the core leader competencies and attributes described in the Leadership Requirements Model (ADRP 6-22). Since 2009, CASAL has employed a consistent method of capturing upward assessments of survey respondents' immediate superior or supervisor, a practice that enables trend comparisons across years. In the 2014 CASAL, 75% of Army civilian respondents indicated their immediate superior or supervisor is an Army civilian (22% indicated they report to a uniformed leader). This section presents findings on civilian leader effectiveness in demonstrating doctrinal competencies and attributes and identifies strengths and areas for

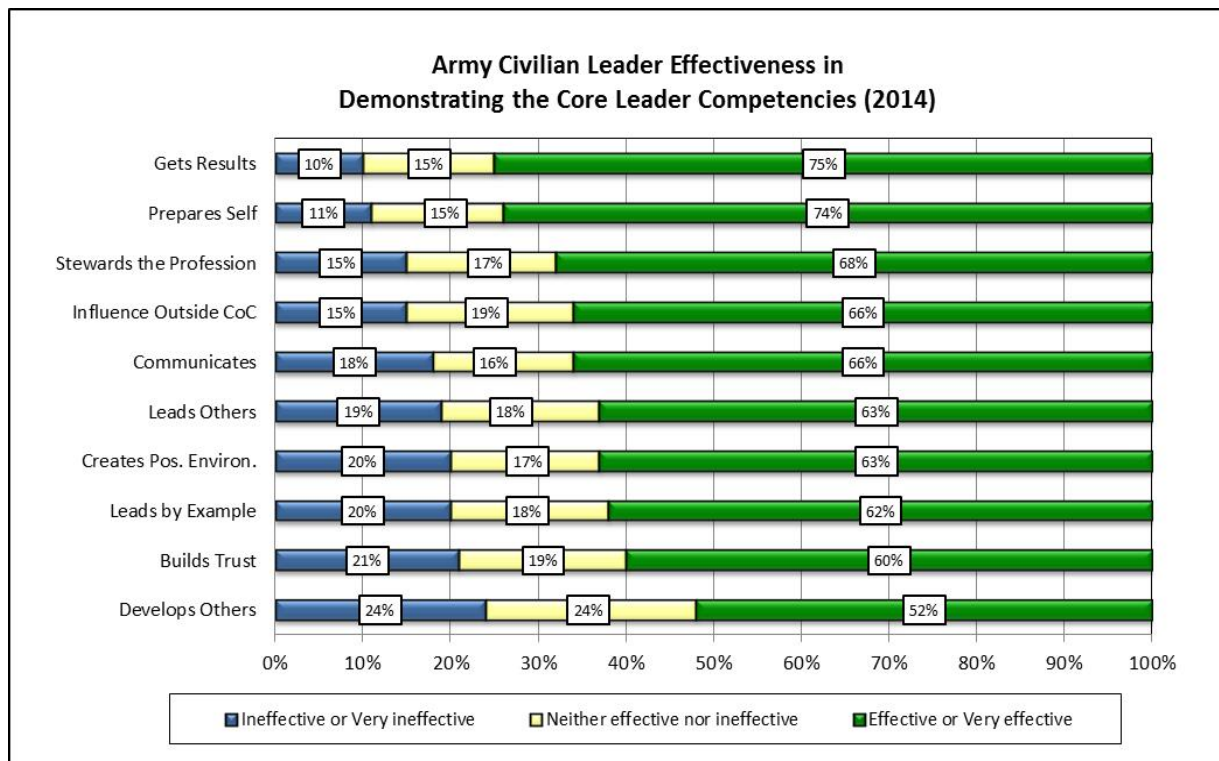
³ The percentage of civilian leaders rated as having a positive/very positive effect on unit/team discipline (56%) and unit/team cohesion (56%) is lower than ratings for active duty uniformed leaders (71% and 70%, respectively).

improvement for civilian leaders. Comparisons to assessments of uniformed leader effectiveness on the competencies and attributes are also made.

Core Leader Competencies

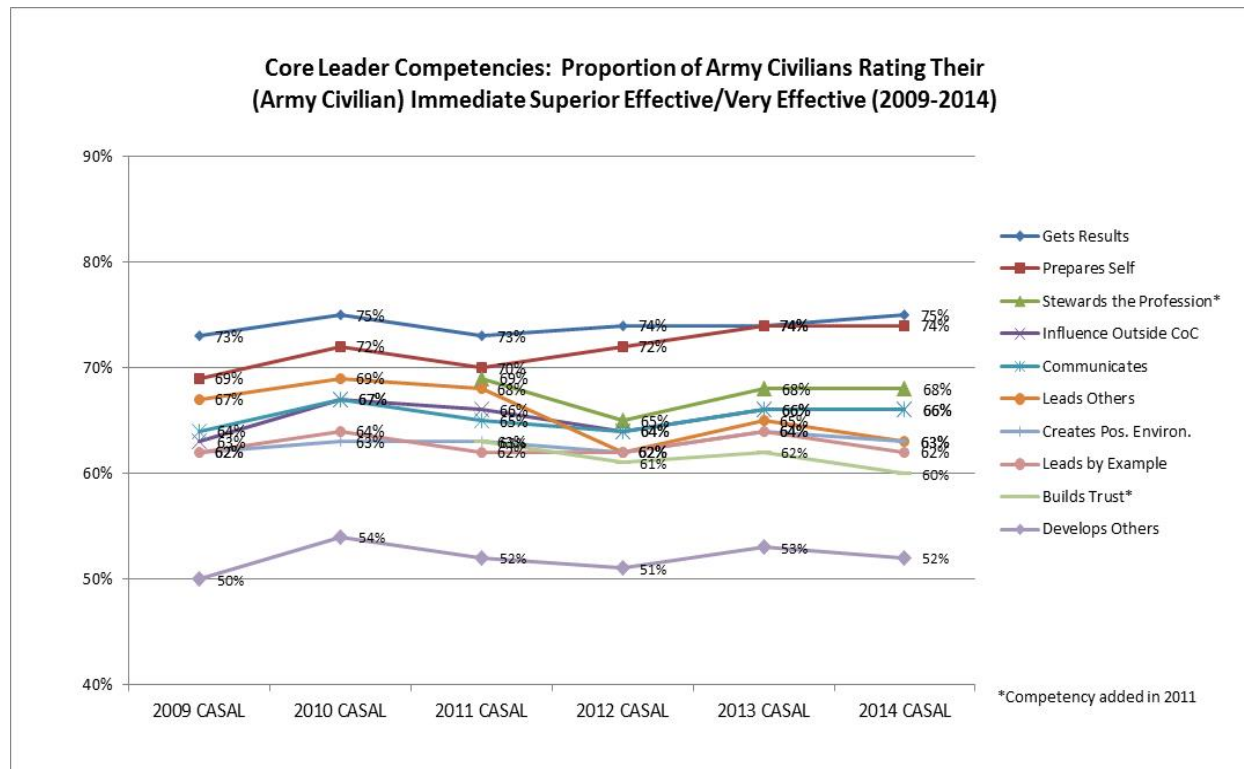
Competencies provide a clear and consistent way of conveying expectations for Army leaders; apply to all levels of leader positions; and can be developed. Army leaders continuously refine and increase their proficiency to perform the core leader competencies and learn to apply them to increasingly complex situations (ADRP 6-22). Between 52% and 75% of Army civilians rate their civilian immediate superior effective or very effective on the ten core leader competencies (see Figure 2). *Gets Results* (75%) and *Prepares Self* (74%) are the competencies in which civilians are rated effective by the largest percentage of subordinates, a consistent trend observed by CASAL since 2009. *Develops Others* persists as the lowest rated competency and the area most in need of improvement for both civilian and uniformed leaders.

Figure 2. Army Civilian Leader Effectiveness on the Core Leader Competencies.



Assessments of civilian leader effectiveness in demonstrating the core leader competencies have remained fairly stable since 2012 (+/- 3%). Figure 3 displays CASAL findings on civilian leader effectiveness in demonstrating the competencies from 2009 to 2014.

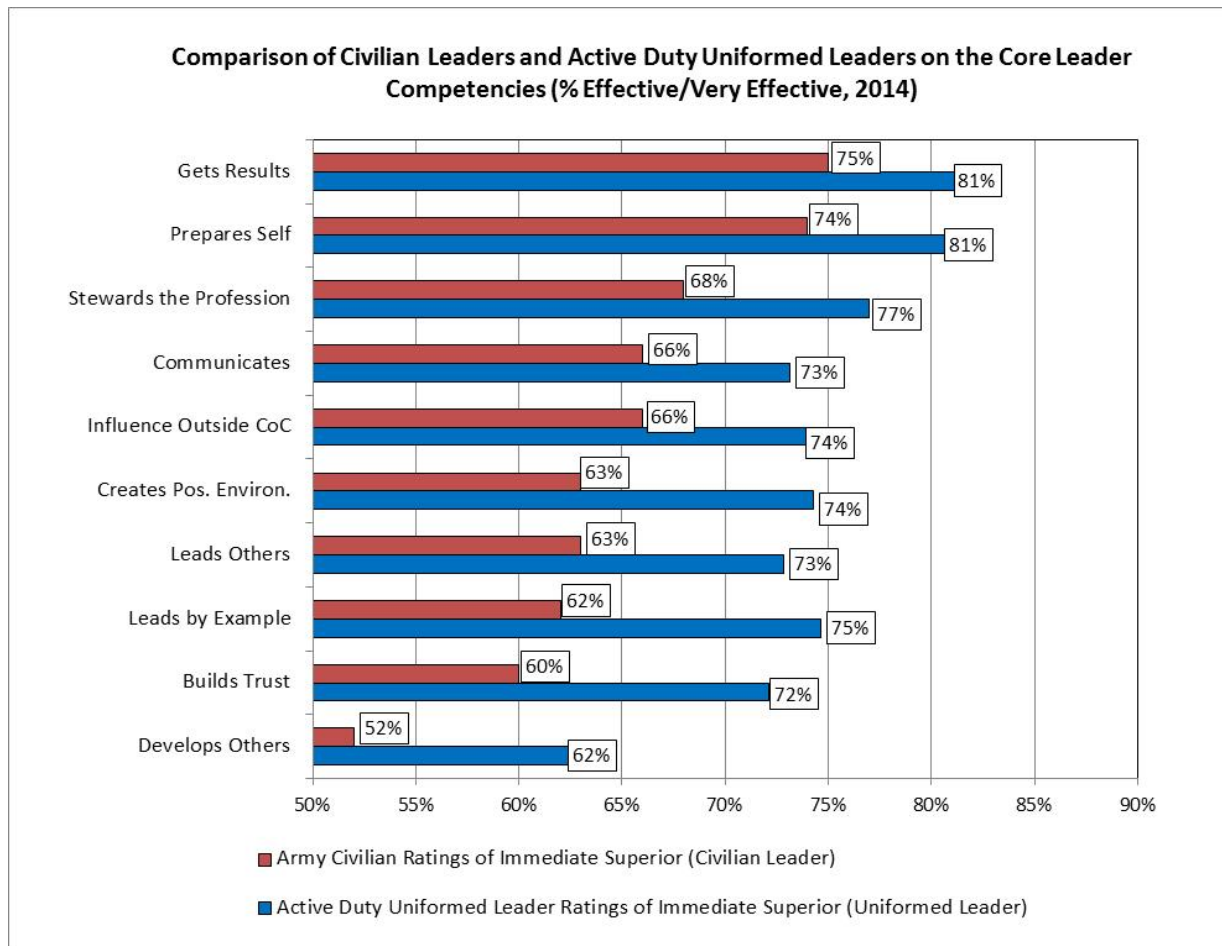
Figure 3. Comparison of Army Civilian Leader Effectiveness in Demonstrating the Core Leader Competencies from 2009 to 2014.



The relative rank ordering of competencies from most to least favorable generally follows a consistent pattern between ratings for Army civilian leaders (by Army civilian subordinates; n=4,314) and active duty uniformed leaders (by uniformed subordinate leaders; n=6,204). In other words, the strengths and areas for improvement do not tend to differ for civilian leaders and uniformed leaders. Figure 4 displays results of the 2014 CASAL for both of these leader cohorts.

Another notable trend is that assessments of uniformed leaders show greater favorability on the competencies when compared to assessments of civilian leaders. The top three competencies and bottom two competencies (by percentage of effective/very effective ratings) are the same for uniformed leaders and civilian leaders.

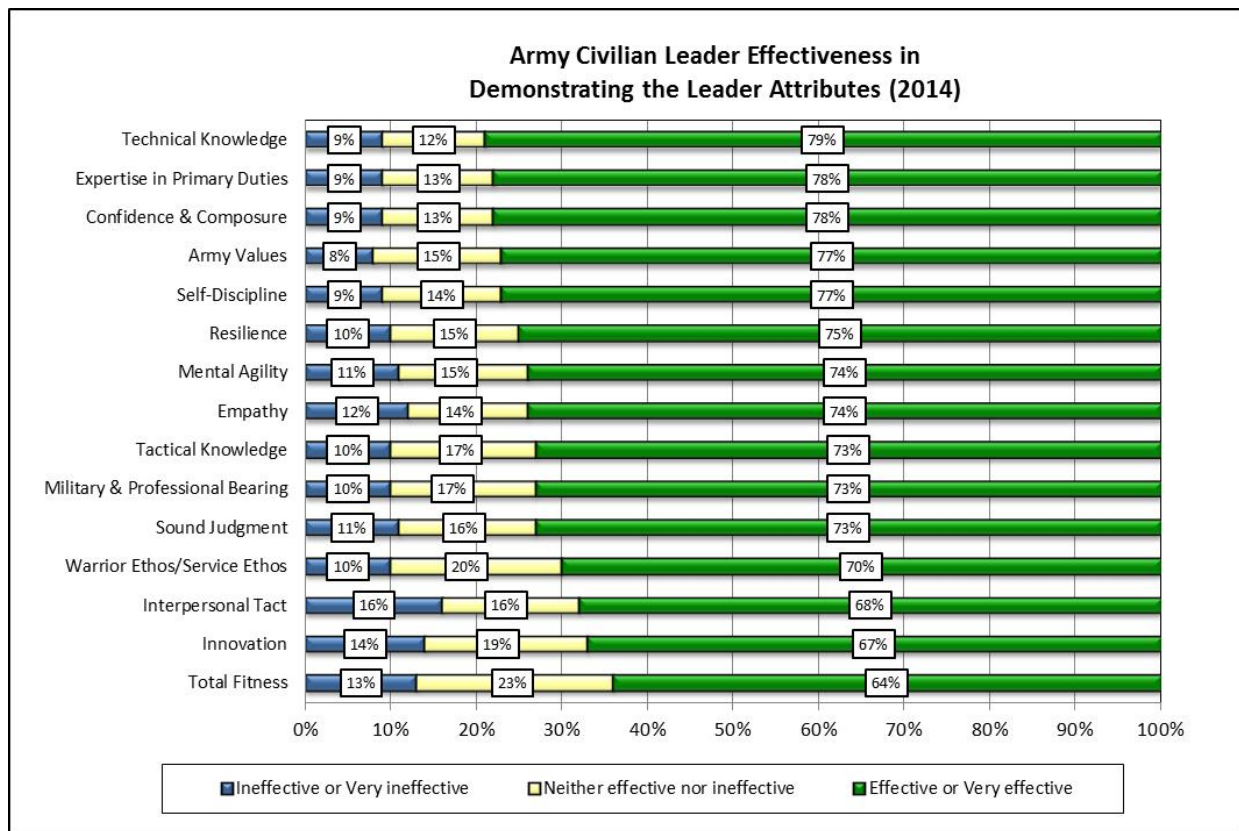
Figure 4. Comparison of Army Civilian and Active Duty Uniformed Leaders on the Core Leader Competencies (% Effective/Very Effective, 2014).



Leader Attributes

The attributes represent the values and identity of Army leaders (character), how leaders are perceived by followers and others (presence), and the mental and social faculties that leaders apply when leading (intellect). Between 64% and 79% of Army civilians rate their civilian immediate superior effective or very effective on the leader attributes (see Figure 5). These results represent a consistent trend across CASAL administrations. In 2014, the attributes for which the largest percentage of civilians leaders are rated effective or very effective are *Technical Knowledge* (79%), *Expertise in Primary Duties* (78%), and *Confidence & Composure* (78%).

Figure 5. Army Civilian Leader Effectiveness on the Leader Attributes.

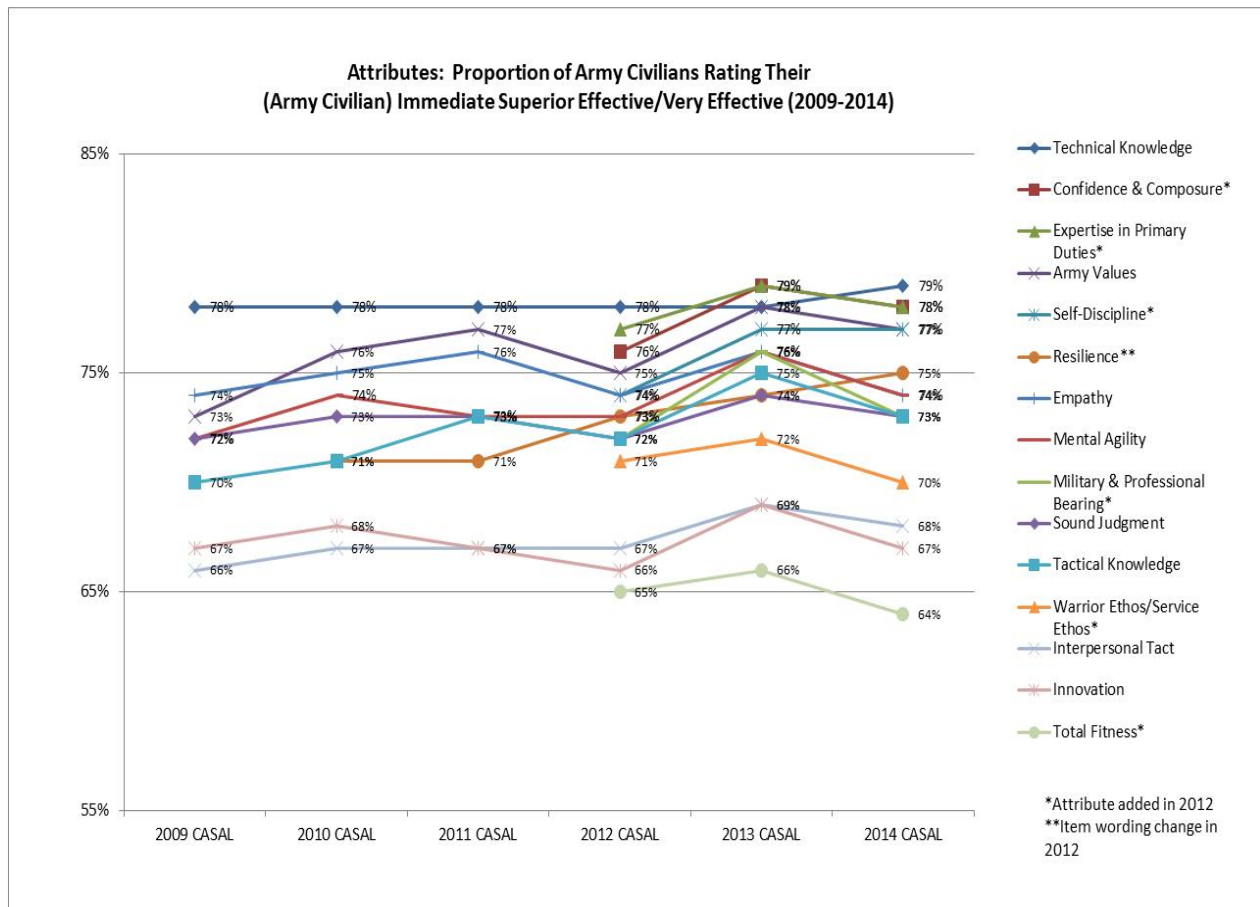


The three lowest-rated attributes for civilian leaders are *Total Fitness* (64%), *Innovation* (67%), and *Interpersonal Tact* (68%). Importantly, assessments of civilian leaders are favorable across all of the leader attributes, as only 8% to 16% of Army civilians rate their civilian immediate superior ineffective in demonstrating any of the attributes. Figure 6 displays CASAL findings on civilian leader effectiveness in demonstrating the attributes from 2009 to 2014. Since 2012, the level of favorable assessment for each individual leader attribute has remained fairly stable (within 4%).

As with the competencies, assessments for uniformed leaders also show greater favorability across the attributes when compared to results for civilian leaders (see Figure 7). There are several similarities between these leader cohorts in terms of the relative rank ordering of the attributes. The *Army Values*, *Confidence & Composure*, *Self-Discipline* are among the highest rated attributes while *Innovation* and *Interpersonal Tact* are among the lowest. There are also notable differences, as civilian leaders are rated most favorably in demonstrating *Expertise* and

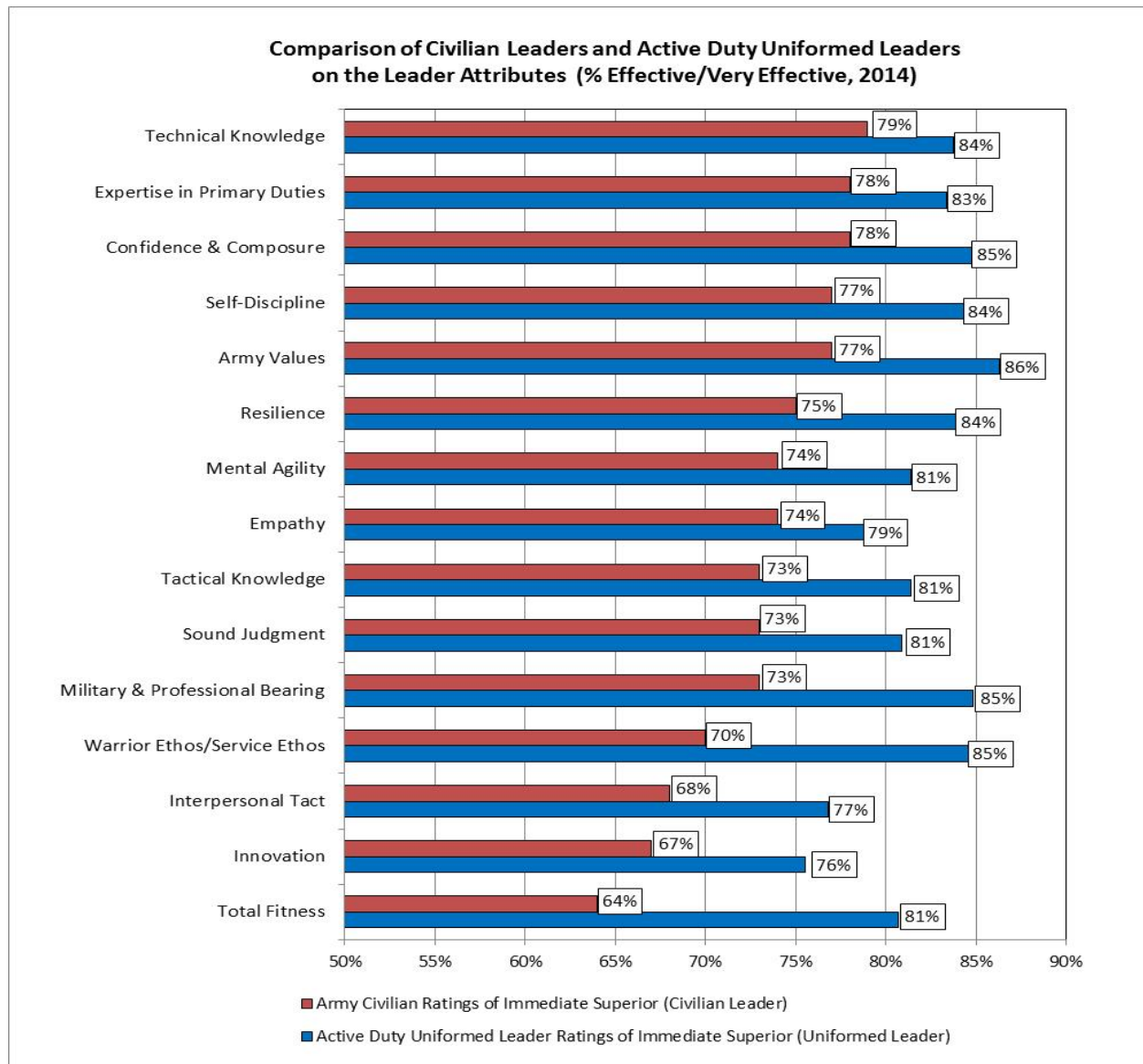
Confidence & Composure, while ratings for *Military & Professional Bearing*, *Warrior Ethos/Service Ethos*, and *Total Fitness* are higher for uniformed leaders.⁴

Figure 6. Comparison of Army Civilian Leader Effectiveness in Demonstrating the Leader Attributes from 2009 to 2014.



⁴ The percentages of civilian leaders rated effective/very effective at demonstrating the Army Values (77%), Military & Professional Bearing (73%), the Warrior Ethos/Service Ethos (70%) and Total Fitness (64%) are lower than ratings for active duty uniformed leaders.

Figure 7. Comparison of Army Civilian and Active Duty Uniformed Leaders on the Leader Attributes (% Effective/Very Effective, 2014).



1.3 Characteristics of Effective Leadership

The 2014 CASAL assessed additional characteristics of leader performance beyond the named competencies and attributes in doctrine. A majority of civilian leaders are rated favorably in demonstrating a range of leadership actions or skills (see Figure 8) that are bulleted items in ADRP 6-22 tables.

Favorable indicators include subordinate ratings of their civilian immediate superior's effectiveness in setting the standard for integrity and character (71%)⁵, and agreement their superior upholds ethical standards (77%). Each of these behaviors is positively related to the competency of *Leads by Example* ($r's = .82$ and $.72$, $p's < .001$) and the attribute of *Army values* ($r's = .81$ and $.76$, $p's < .001$). Also favorable is that more than two-thirds of civilian leaders are rated effective at developing a quick understanding of complex situations (73%) and at dealing with unfamiliar situations (67%). Each of these behaviors is positively related to *Mental Agility* ($r's = .81$ and $.78$, $p's < .001$), the attribute with which 74% of civilian leaders are rated effective.

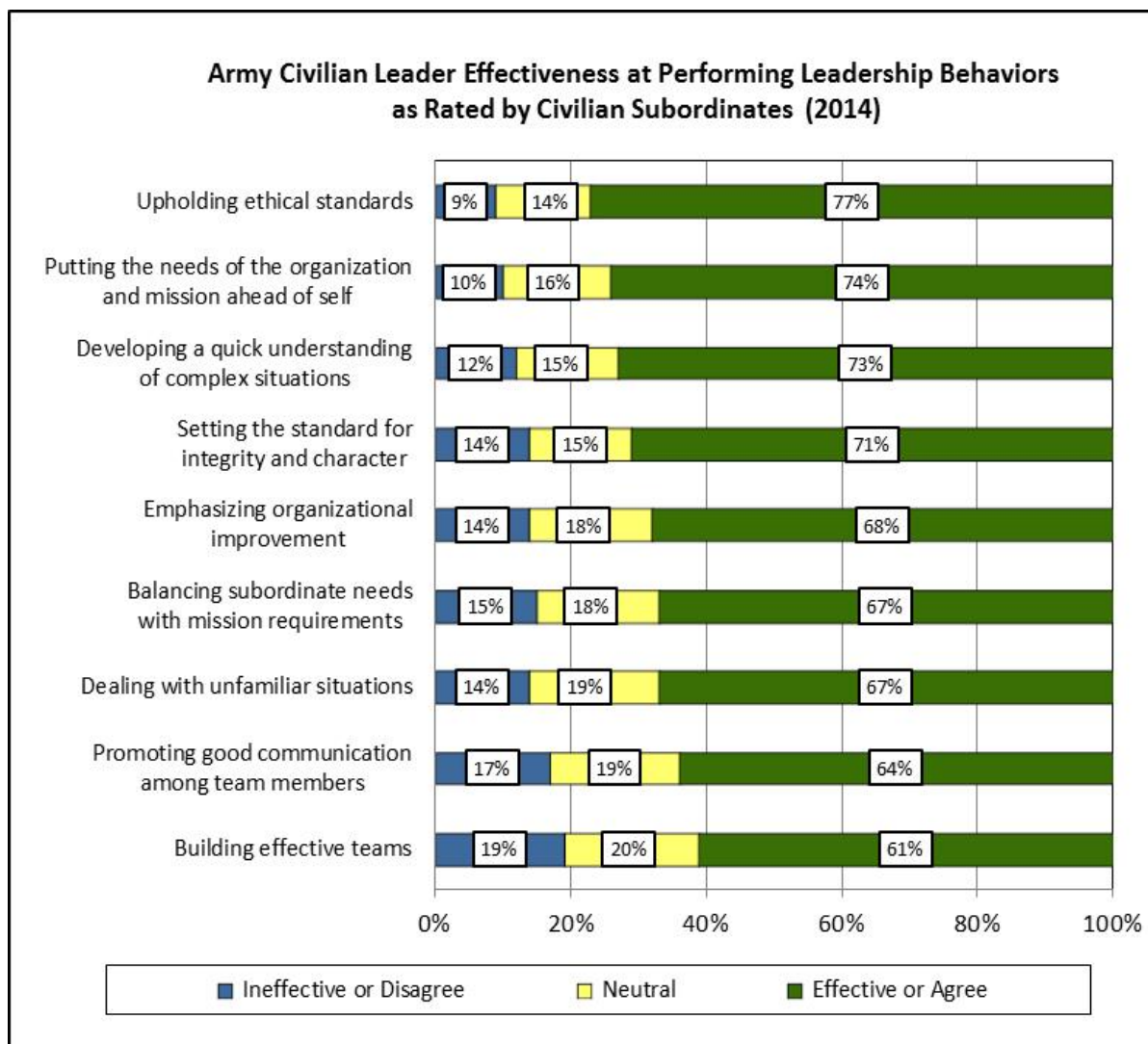
Additional indicators of civilian leader effectiveness include the following:

- 74% of Army civilians agree their immediate superior puts the needs of the organization and mission ahead of self (10% disagree).
- 68% of Army civilians rate their immediate superior effective at emphasizing organizational improvement (14% ineffective).
- 67% of Army civilians rate their immediate superior effective at balancing subordinate needs with mission requirements (15% ineffective).
- Small percentages of civilian leaders are reported to exhibit counter-productive or negative leadership behaviors such as berating subordinates for small mistakes (15%), blaming other people to save himself/herself from embarrassment (16%), and setting misplaced priorities that interfere with accomplishing goals (19%).

An area for continued focus and improvement is civilian leader effectiveness in building teams, particularly by promoting good communication among team members and by fostering team cohesion. Currently, less than two-thirds of Army civilians rate their immediate superior effective in building teams (61%) or agree their superior promotes good communication among team members (64%); one in five (21%) indicates his/her superior does little to help the team be more cohesive. Communication is important for building cohesion in work groups. CASAL results show that civilian leaders who promote good communication among team members are also viewed effective in building teams ($r = .78$, $p < .001$) and as having a positive effect on team cohesion ($r = .79$, $p < .001$).

⁵ The percentage of civilian leaders rated effective/very effective at setting the standard for integrity and character (71%) is lower than ratings for active duty uniformed leaders (82%).

Figure 8. Civilian Leader Effectiveness in Demonstrating Various Behaviors.



Summary of Findings on the Quality of Leadership

Army civilians report moderate levels of satisfaction with military and civilian leadership, and attitudes are associated with the perceived effectiveness of their superiors as leaders and various aspects of trust. Civilian managers and first line supervisors continue to exhibit moderate to strong levels of leadership quality. A majority of Army civilians view their civilian superiors as effective leaders. Strengths include getting results, preparing oneself and stewardship of the profession, as well as demonstrating technical knowledge, expertise in their primary duties, and confidence and composure. Areas for continued focus and improvement are civilian leader effectiveness in developing subordinates and in building effective teams by fostering communication and cohesion.

2. Climate and Situational Factors within the Working Environment

CASAL assesses and tracks trends on civilian leader morale, commitment and career satisfaction, and examines the interrelationships between these factors. Additionally, attitudes and perceptions about characteristics of the current working environment (e.g., engagement, organizational climate) provide context for factors that affect the quality of leadership, duty performance and mission outcomes.

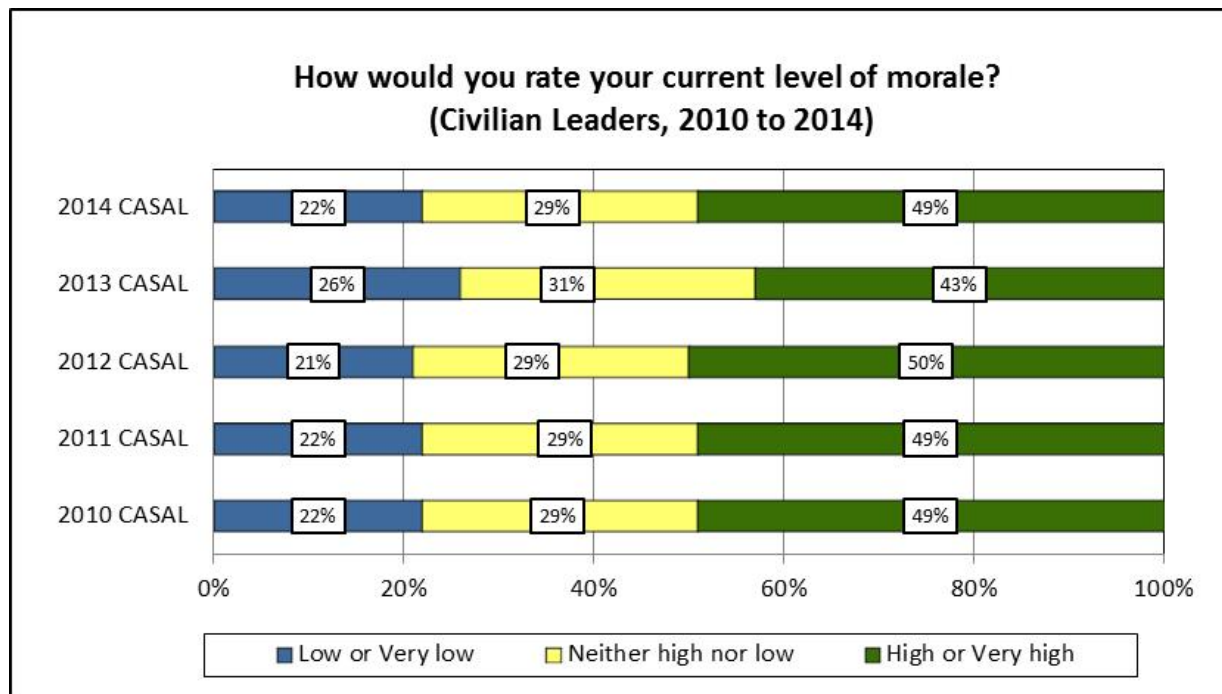
Also examined are civilian leader perceptions about the levels of trust in organizations and effective leadership behaviors that build trust. A relatively new area of focus is mission command, including the effectiveness of leaders in demonstrating the principles of mission command and the extent that operating environments reflect the mission command philosophy. Finally, the 2014 CASAL examined the frequency with which Army civilians use various methods to influence others.

2.1 Morale and Career Satisfaction

Results of the 2014 CASAL show that 53% of managers and 46% of first line supervisors report high or very high morale (21% and 24% low or very low morale, respectively). Levels of civilian leader morale reported by CASAL have remained generally stable since assessed in 2010 with the exception of a sharp decline observed in 2013 (see Figure 9). The downturn during 2013, which included one in four civilian leaders reporting low or very low morale, was not unexpected given the climate of fiscal uncertainty within the federal government and specifically the Department of Defense around the time of the survey (October/November 2013). Army civilians experienced pay and hiring freezes, budgetary constraints and furloughs which suspended many civilian employees from their assigned duties for short periods of time. 2014 CASAL results indicate morale has increased but still shows room for improvement, as 22% of civilian leaders report low or very low morale.

There is a positive relationship between civilian leaders' current level of morale and their career satisfaction ($r = .65, p < .001$). Morale represents leaders' current affective reaction to the environment or job in which they operate. In contrast, career satisfaction represents a compilation of affective and other attitudes regarding characteristics spanning a leader's career (Locke, 1976; Pinder, 1998).

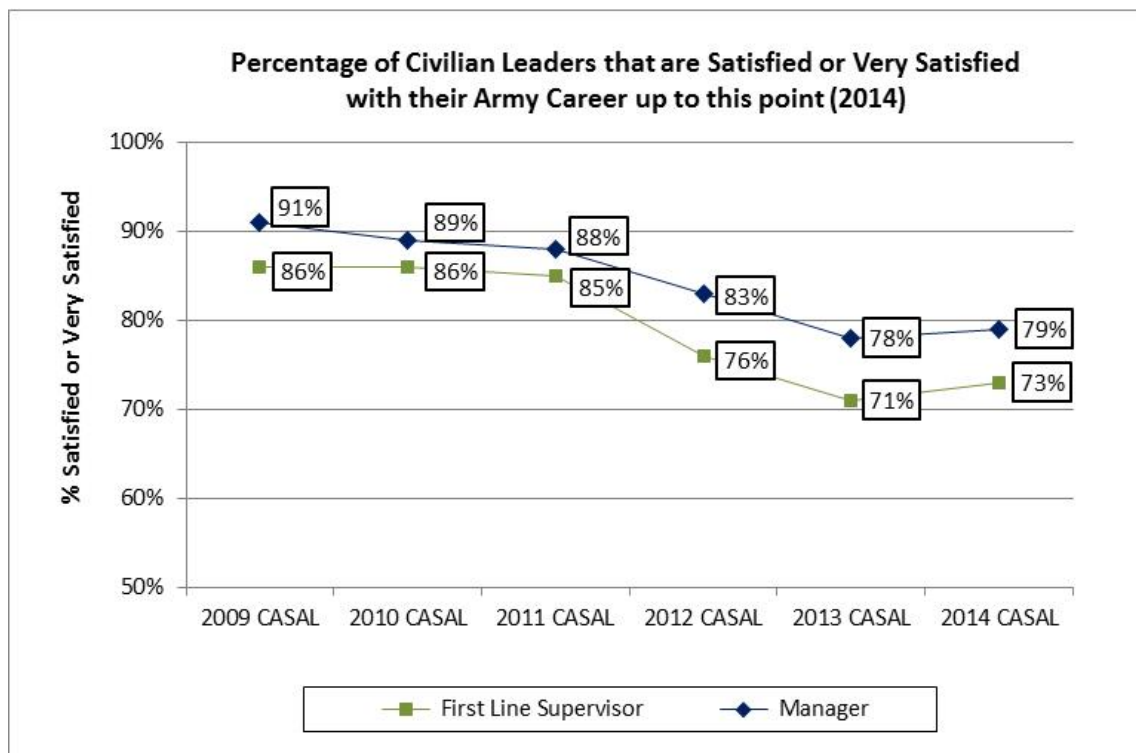
Figure 9. Levels of Civilian Leader Morale from 2010 to 2014.



While overall levels of career satisfaction among civilian leaders remain favorable, there has been a notable decline since 2011. In 2014, 79% of managers and 74% of first line supervisors report they are satisfied or very satisfied with their Army career up to this point (see Figure 10). These levels reached their lowest point in 2013, concurrent with the decline in morale. In 2014, levels of career satisfaction have improved but not to the same degree as morale.

CASAL results show a positive association between effective leadership and civilian leader morale and career satisfaction. Specifically, civilian leaders who agree their immediate superior is an effective leader also tend to report favorable levels of morale ($r = .54, p < .001$) and career satisfaction ($r = .41, p < .001$). Other factors not assessed by CASAL, such as those mentioned previously (e.g., budgetary constraints, fiscal uncertainty) likely have considerable impacts on levels of civilian leader career satisfaction as well.

Figure 10. Levels of Civilian Leader Career Satisfaction from 2010 to 2014.



2.2 Characteristics of the Working Environment

CASAL includes assessment of civilian leader job engagement, attitudes toward characteristics of Army working environments, and other factors related to the mission and organizational climate. Also assessed is the prevalence of stress from high workloads and its impact on various outcomes.

Civilian Leader Engagement

Managers and first line supervisors continue to report moderate to strong levels of engagement in their current duties:

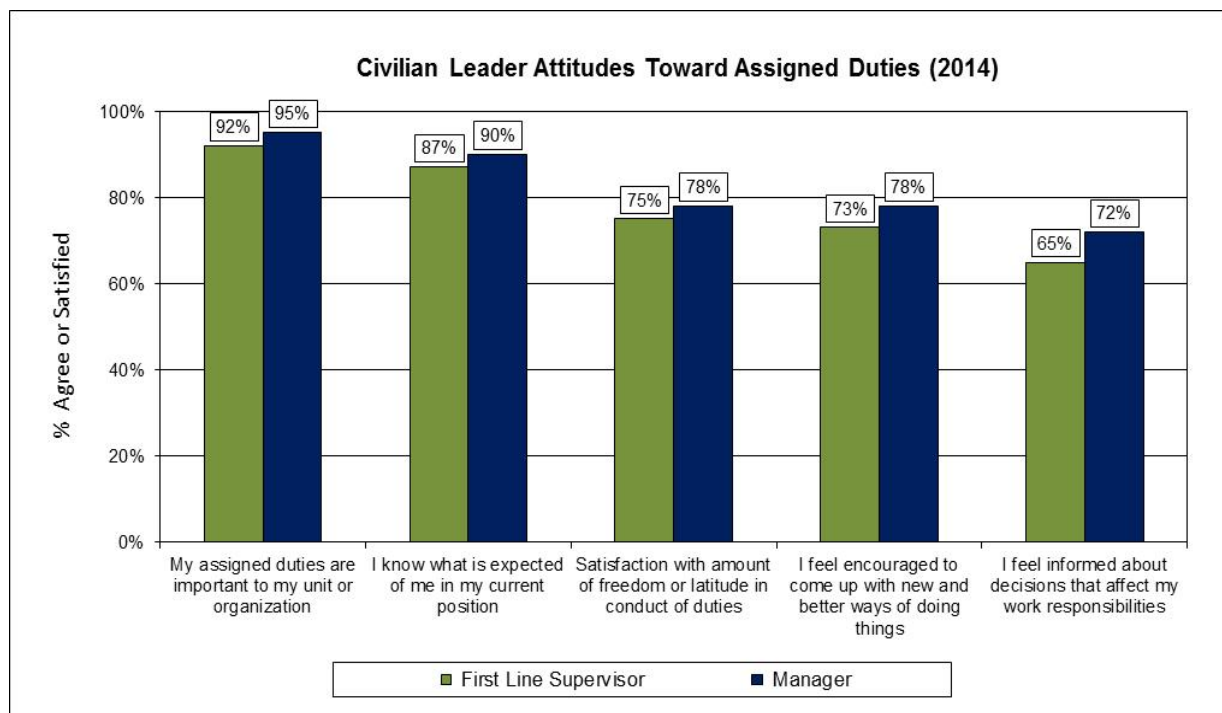
- Overwhelming majorities of civilian leaders are committed to their team or immediate work group (97%) and indicate agreement that their assigned duties are important to their unit or organization (94%) (see Figure 11).
- Eighty-nine percent of civilian leaders agree they know what is expected of them in their current position (7% disagree).
- Three-fourths of civilian leaders (76%) are satisfied or very satisfied with the freedom or latitude they have in the conduct of their duties (14% dissatisfied or very dissatisfied).

- Results of the 2013 Army Civilian Attitude Survey provide support for these findings. Specifically, the survey found that 94% of civilian supervisors agreed the work they do is important, 82% agreed they know what is expected of them on the job, and 83% agreed that their work gives them a feeling of personal accomplishment.

The 2014 CASAL also found that two-thirds of civilian leaders (68%) agree or strongly agree they feel informed about decisions that affect their work responsibilities (19% disagree). Civilian leader attitudes toward information flow have been stable in recent years (2012-2014) and are now more favorable following a steady downward trend observed from 2009-2011 (from 74% to 56% agree). Results of the 2013 Army Civilian Attitude Survey show comparable attitudes toward the level of information flow within organizations; 62% of civilian supervisors indicated satisfaction with their involvement in decisions that affect their work, and 57% were satisfied with the information they received from management on what is going on in the organization (Civilian Personnel Evaluation Agency, 2013b).

Three-fourths of civilian managers and first line supervisors (75%) agree they feel encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things (14% disagree). These attitudes reflect positive working conditions that foster innovative thought and action. Notably, these results are more positive than were observed in the 2013 Army Civilian Attitude Survey (67% agreement by Army civilian supervisors).

Figure 11. Army Civilian Leader Attitudes about Working Environments.



Additionally, manager and first line supervisor engagement is reflected in positive attitudes toward several factors that relate to the ability of their unit or organization to perform its mission:

- Eighty-six percent of civilian leaders agree that members of their team or immediate work group collaborate effectively to achieve results (6% disagree).
- Eighty-three percent of civilian leaders agree that members of their unit or organization are committed to performing at a high level (7% disagree).
- About four-fifths of civilian leaders (79%) agree they are confident in the ability of their unit/organization to perform its mission (10% disagree). While favorable, the level of agreement has declined slightly (-4%) since 2012.

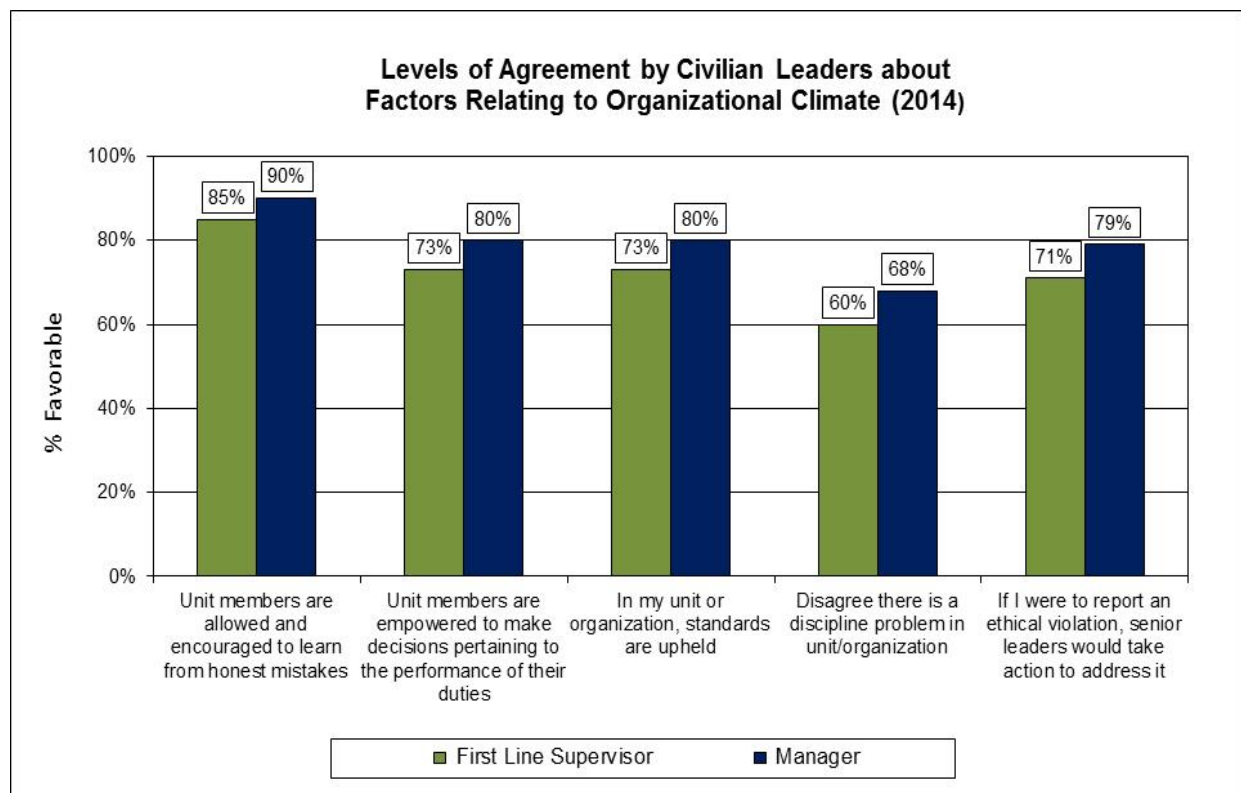
Indicators of Organizational Climate

CASAL findings reflect positive civilian leader attitudes regarding the organizational climates in which they operate:

- Three-fourths of civilian leaders (76%) agree that standards are upheld in their unit or organization (e.g., professional bearing, adherence to regulations) while 12% disagree. Further, nearly two-thirds (63%) disagree that a discipline problem exists (19% agree). Each of these indicators show no change since first assessed in 2012.
- Three-fourths of civilian leaders (75%) agree that if they were to report an ethical violation, senior leaders in their chain of command would take action to address it (12% disagree). These results are consistent with those observed in 2013.

Importantly, a majority of civilian leaders perceive the climate of their current organization to be supportive of learning, as 87% of managers and first line supervisors agree that members of their unit/organization are allowed and encouraged to learn from honest mistakes (6% disagree). The levels of agreement show a notable increase compared to results of the 2013 CASAL (+11%). Another positive indicator related to organizational learning is leader empowerment to perform assigned duties. Three-fourths of civilian leaders (76%) agree they feel empowered to make decisions pertaining to the performance of their duties, while 13% disagree. Civilian leader attitudes toward empowerment in their duties are slightly more favorable than those observed in 2013 (+3%). The results of manager and first line supervisor attitudes toward organizational climate factors are presented in Figure 12.

Figure 12. Army Civilian Leader Attitudes about Organizational Climate.



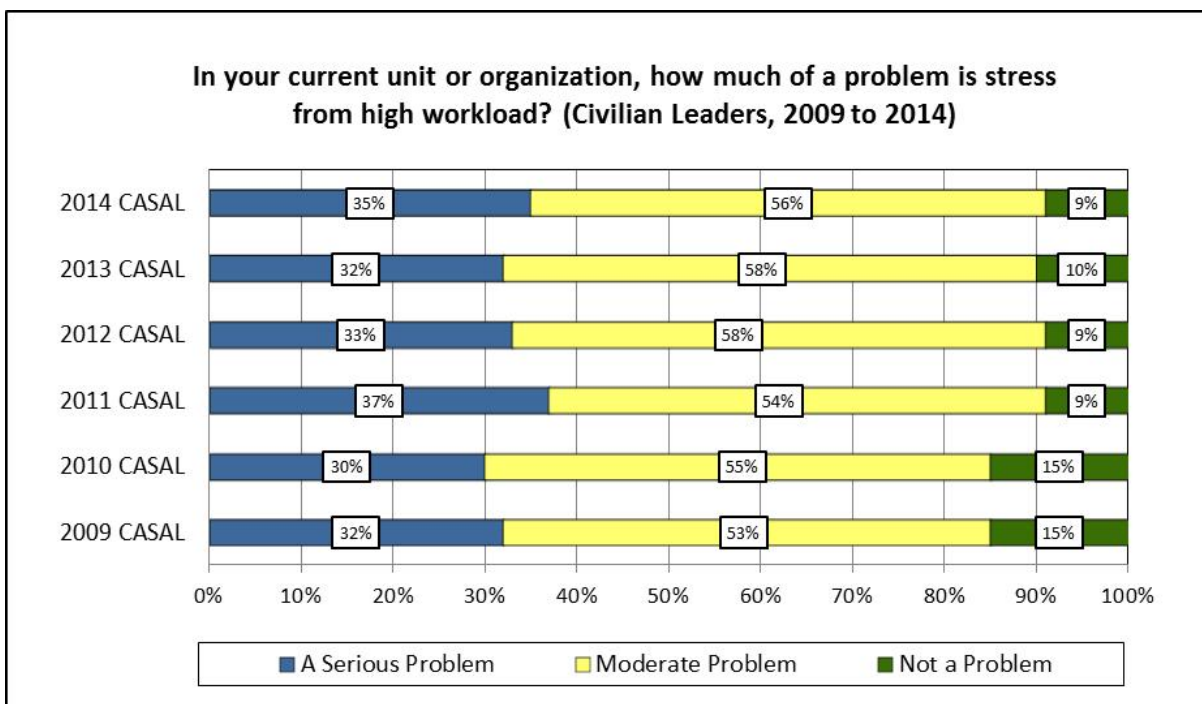
In summary, civilian managers and first line supervisors generally hold favorable attitudes toward their assigned duties and the organizations in which they work. This is important, as research (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Morgeson & Campion, 2003) has demonstrated that the characteristics of one's job and the working environment are positively associated with both individual outcomes (e.g., employee satisfaction, motivation, job performance) and organizational outcomes (e.g., turnover and absenteeism).

CASAL results further demonstrate a positive relationship between civilian leaders' attitudes toward the performance of their duties (e.g., satisfaction with freedom or latitude in job, feeling informed about decisions affecting work responsibilities, feeling encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things) and their current level of morale ($r's = .52$ to $.54$, $p's < .001$). Similarly, civilian leaders' attitudes toward their organization or work group (e.g., proud to tell others they are a member of the organization, confident in ability of organization to perform its mission, agreement organization's members are empowered to make decisions) are also positively related to current levels of morale ($r's = .47$ to $.50$, $p's < .001$). Each of these factors is also positively related to civilian leaders' career satisfaction ($r's = .40$ to $.45$, $p's < .001$).

Workload and Stress

Since 2009, CASAL has assessed and tracked trends on the severity of stress from high workload that Army civilian leaders perceive in their jobs. A persistent trend is that about one in three civilian leaders indicate that stress from a high workload is a serious problem (from a low of 30% in 2010 to a high of 37% in 2011).⁶ Since 2011, less than 10% of civilian leaders report workload stress is not a problem at all. Results of the 2014 CASAL show consistency with prior years, and notably, the problem is not improving for civilian leaders (see Figure 13). Results of the 2013 Army Civilian Attitude Survey provide additional insights on reasons for workload stress experienced by civilian leaders. Only about half of civilian supervisor respondents (56%) agreed their workload is reasonable (30% disagreed), a decline of 5% since 2010. Staffing is also an issue, as only one in three civilian supervisors (36%) agreed there is a sufficient number of people to do the work while half (50%) disagreed (Civilian Personnel Evaluation Agency, 2013b).

Figure 13. Civilian Leaders Reporting Stress from High Workload as a Problem from 2009 to 2014.



As reported in the 2013 CASAL, more than half of civilian leaders experiencing moderate to serious stress from a high workload, more than half indicated the stress was negatively

⁶ On a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 indicates 'Not a problem at all' and 7 indicates 'A serious problem,' civilian leaders (M = 4.81) differ significantly from active duty uniformed leaders (M = 4.28) in ratings for the severity of the problem of stress from a high workload.

affecting their well-being (62%) and the quality of their work (51%) to a moderate, large or great extent (Riley et al., 2014).

Army leaders can respond to stress associated with high workloads by fostering a climate in which seeking help for stress-related issues is accepted and encouraged. In 2014, 59% of managers and 53% of first line supervisors agree or strongly agree that seeking help for stress-related problems (not limited to seeking help just a work) is accepted and encouraged in their unit or organization (12% and 13% disagree, respectively), results consistent with those observed in 2013. Leaders can also respond to high workloads by taking action to mitigate or alleviate demands associated with subordinate stress. However, only 58% of civilian leaders are rated effective at taking action to help subordinates manage excessive workload demands while one in five (21%) are rated ineffective. Getting managers to reduce or prioritize workload would address the concern as well.

2.3 Trust

Results of the 2014 CASAL support the Army's understanding of trust within units and organizations, perceptions of leader effectiveness in building trust, and related outcomes.

The following points summarize the key findings related to trust in the Army:

- At a broad level, four out of five Army civilians describe the current level of trust among members of their unit or organization as moderate, high or very high; one in five report low or very low trust among unit members. In 2014, the levels of trust reported by Army civilians are consistent with levels observed in 2013.
- More than two-thirds of civilian managers and first line supervisors report having high or very high trust in their subordinates. Nearly two-thirds of Army civilians report having high or very high trust in their peers and their immediate superior, while about half report high or very high trust in their superior two levels up.
- Sixty percent of Army civilians rate their civilian immediate superior effective or very effective at building trust while 21% rate them ineffective. A majority of civilian leaders (56% to 79%) are also viewed favorably in demonstrating trust-related behaviors such as showing trust in subordinates' abilities, following through on commitments, looking out for subordinates' welfare, and correcting conditions in units that hinder trust.
- Civilian leaders who build trust are viewed as positively impacting subordinate work quality, motivation and commitment, as well as unit or team cohesion.

Trust in Army Units and Organizations

Army civilian perceptions of trust at the unit or organizational level continue to be moderately favorable, as demonstrated by several indicators. As a broad assessment, 45% of Army civilians report trust is high or very high among members of their unit or organization, while one-third (35%) indicate there is moderate trust. Low trust is reported by 15% of managers, 21% of first line supervisors, and 25% of nonsupervisory employees. Results are comparable to levels of trust assessed by the 2013 CASAL.

Findings from the 2013 CASAL demonstrated that trust exists in Army organizations where unit members exhibit supportive behaviors such as treating others with respect, doing their share of the work, delivering on what they say they will do, and helping protect others from psychological harm. Organizations promote trust through fostering positive work climates that emphasize ethical conduct, adherence to standards, learning from honest mistakes and decentralized decision-making. 2014 CASAL results reaffirm the positive relationships between these organizational factors and the perceived level of trust among unit members, as rated by Army civilians:

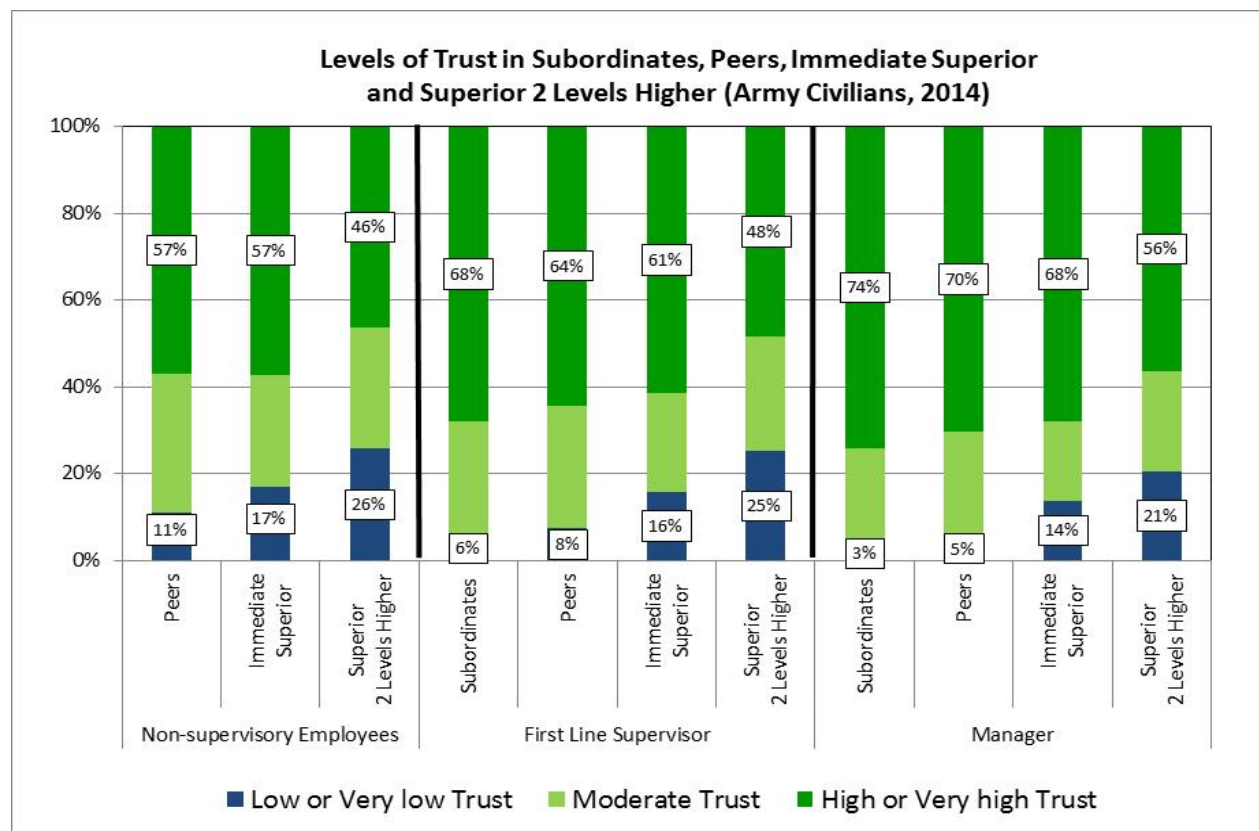
- Trust tends to be high in organizations with climates that empower unit members to make decisions pertaining to their duties ($r = .60, p < .001$), allow and encourage learning from honest mistakes ($r = .53, p < .001$), encourage new and better ways of doing things ($r = .50, p < .001$), and uphold standards ($r = .62, p < .001$).
- Army civilian perceptions of an ethical climate where senior leaders would take action to address violations are positively related to trust ($r = .56, p < .001$).
- These types of factors (e.g., a climate for learning) represent conditions that senior leaders can promote to foster trust in their organizations.

Trust in Leaders and Others

Army civilian ratings for the level of trust they have in others are favorable and reflect the presence of positive relationships in Army units and organizations. A majority of Army civilians report having moderate, high or very high trust in those with whom they work and interact. Specifically, over two-thirds of managers (74%) and first line supervisors (68%) report having high or very high trust in their subordinates, while very small percentages report low or very low trust (3% and 6%, respectively). Large percentages of managers (70%) and first line supervisors (64%) also report high or very high trust in their peers. In comparison, only 57% of non-supervisory civilian employees report high or very high trust in peers, while 11% report that it is low. Figure 14 displays results for the reported levels of trust that Army civilian

managers, first line supervisors and non-supervisory employees have in others. These results are slightly more favorable than the levels of trust observed in 2013 (+2% to +4%).

Figure 14. Civilian Leader Ratings of Trust in Subordinates, Peers and Superiors.



A majority of Army civilians report having high or very high trust in their immediate superior. This includes 68% of managers, 61% of first line supervisors and 57% of non-supervisory employees. Low or very low trust in immediate superiors is reported by 14% of managers, 16% of first line supervisors and 17% of non-supervisory employees. The relative low frequency of distrust in one's immediate superior is further supported by results of the 2013 Army Civilian Attitude Survey which found 73% of civilian supervisor and 66% of non-supervisor respondents agreed with the statement 'I have trust and confidence in my supervisor' while 14% and 19%, respectively, disagreed (Civilian Personnel Evaluation Agency, 2013a; 2013b).

CASAL results also demonstrate that Army civilians' level of trust in their civilian immediate superior is significantly related to the extent the superior exhibits four leadership competencies and three attributes. Specifically, a civilian leader's effectiveness in *Leading by Example*, *Creating a Positive Environment*, demonstrating *Sound Judgment*, demonstrating *Empathy*, *Developing their Subordinates*, living the *Army Values*, and demonstrating *Technical Knowledge*

explains a significant amount of variance in the level of trust Army civilian subordinates have in that leader ($R^2 = .84, p < .001$)⁷. These characteristics, along with demonstrating the competency *Builds Trust*, exemplify a civilian leader's trustworthiness (from subordinates' standpoint).

About half of Army civilians (56% of managers, 48% of first line supervisors, and 46% of non-supervisory employees) report high or very high trust in their superior two levels up (i.e., the individual directly above their immediate superior). Low trust in one's superior two levels up is reported by 21% of managers, 25% of first line supervisors and 26% of non-supervisory employees.⁸ As reported in the 2013 CASAL, reasons for low or very low trust in superiors two levels higher tend to center on communication issues (e.g., lack of communication, ineffective or unclear guidance), character or integrity issues (e.g., dishonesty, ethical breaches, inconsistent standards) and ineffective leadership behaviors (e.g., self-interest, favoritism, poor judgment, lack of presence).

Civilian Leader Effectiveness in Building Trust

Leadership doctrine (ADRP 6-22) states that Army leaders build trust to mediate relationships and encourage commitment among followers. This starts with respect among people and grows from both common experiences and shared understanding. Trust establishes conditions for effective influence and for creating a positive environment (Department of the Army, 2012b).

In 2014, 60% of Army civilians rate their civilian immediate superior effective or very effective at the competency *Builds Trust*, which is consistent with findings observed over the past four years (60%-63% effective). The results for several other indices of civilian leader effectiveness in building and sustaining trust among followers are presented in Figure 15. These results reflect subordinate Army civilian attitudes about their civilian immediate superior's effectiveness in behaviors that include demonstrating trust in subordinates' abilities; honoring commitments to others; positively correcting unit climate conditions that hinder trust; looking out for subordinate welfare; and refraining from displaying favoritism.

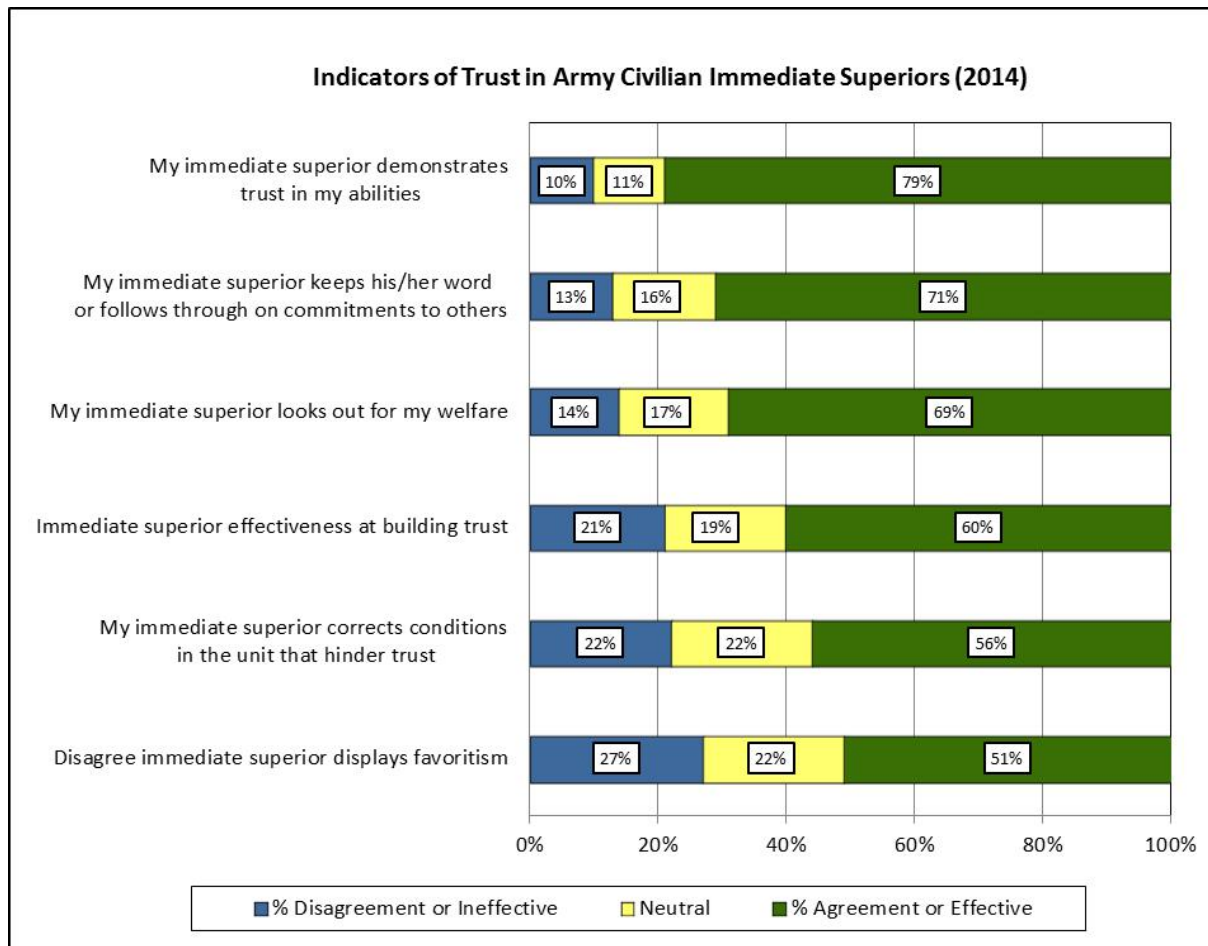
At a broad level, the results for each of these behaviors are consistent with results observed in 2013 (within 2%). The largest percentages of Army civilian subordinates continue to rate their civilian immediate superior effective in demonstrating trust in subordinates' abilities, keeping

⁷ A stepwise multiple regression was conducted to identify the core leader competencies (excluding *Builds Trust*) and leader attributes that account for the largest amount of variance in Army civilian respondent ratings of trust in their civilian immediate superior. The competency *Builds Trust* is significantly related to the Trust composite scale ($r = .88, p < .001$) and is included as an item that comprises the scale.

⁸ The 2014 CASAL did not collect the position, rank or cohort of respondents' superior two levels up.

their word/following through on commitments to others, and looking out for subordinate welfare.

Figure 15. Indicators of Trust in Immediate Superiors by Civilian Leaders.



One area where civilian leaders continue to be assessed below a two-thirds favorability threshold relates to correcting conditions in the unit that hinder trust⁹. Army leadership doctrine states that leaders build and sustain climates of trust by assessing factors or conditions that promote or hinder trust, and correct team members who undermine trust with their attitudes or actions (Department of the Army, 2012b). Previous CASAL findings have identified poor communication (or lack of communication), discipline problems and favoritism or inconsistent standards as conditions that hinder trust. Leaders who demonstrate effective leadership (i.e., character, leading by example, empathy) and uphold standards, enforce

⁹ The percentage of Army civilians indicating agreement/strong agreement that their civilian immediate superior corrects conditions that hinder trust (56%) is significantly lower than active duty uniformed leader agreement (71%).

discipline and hold others accountable promote trust in environments where negative conditions may threaten it.

Favoritism is a leader behavior that is negatively related to effective leadership, particularly the competency *Creates a Positive Environment* ($r = -.55, p < .001$). Favoritism, preferential treatment and inconsistent enforcement of standards are factors that hinder trust by creating climates of perceive inequality. In previous CASAL, civilian leader comments frequently referenced favoritism as reflecting cronyism, unfair personnel actions and decision made to benefit a select group. Examples included offering unfair advantages or benefits to friends or close colleagues to the detriment of others, unequal enforcement of standards and discipline and use of discretion in workplace justice.

CASAL results have previously demonstrated the linkage between civilian leader effectiveness in building trust and perceptions of effective leadership. As with past CASAL, a composite scale score¹⁰ was used to examine the relationship between trust building behavior, effective leadership and subordinate and organizational outcomes. Army civilians who rate their civilian immediate superior favorably across the six behaviors (the trust composite score) also rate their immediate superior effective in demonstrating the core leader competencies ($r = .89, p < .001$) the leader attributes ($r = .86, p < .001$) and agree their immediate superior is an effective leader ($r = .86, p < .001$).

Further, trust-building behaviors are positively associated with favorable subordinate outcomes including a leader's effect on subordinate motivation, work quality and commitment to the Army, and team cohesion (r 's = .71 to .80, p 's < .001). These findings continue to demonstrate the importance of building trust, as civilian leaders who are effective in trust-building behaviors have a positive effect on their followers and the organization.

2.4 Mission Command

Mission command has emerged as a central tenet underpinning how the Army currently operates. Army doctrine (ADP 6-0) describes the mission command philosophy as exercise of

¹⁰ Six items that reflect behaviors associated with immediate superior effectiveness in demonstrating trust were combined into a single scale composite score. The composite variable included the items presented in Figure 15. Values across these six items were summed and then divided by six to produce a single score with a minimum value of 1 and a maximum value of 5. Scale scores of '5' indicate a respondent's average rating across all six items = 5 (highest rating that immediate superior demonstrates trust-building behaviors). A composite score was only generated for respondents who rated their immediate superior on all six items. A reliability analysis showed that this set of items demonstrates very strong internal consistency ($\alpha = .91$). Reliability indices above .80 are generally considered acceptable for a measurement scale while values greater than .90 are considered very strong (Guion, 1998).

authority and direction by the commander using mission orders to enable disciplined initiative within the commander's intent, to empower agile and adaptive leaders in the conduct of unified land operations (Department of the Army, 2012a). Mission command promotes disciplined initiative and empowers leaders to adjust operations within their commander's intent (Perkins, 2012).

Mission command applies to all professionals within the Army. However, civilians do not commonly operate from a commander's orders, nor do many civilians have a commander in their organizational hierarchy. Similarly, many uniformed leaders, such as those in TDA organizations of the generating force, do not operate from orders. What is important is the philosophy of mission command and the concepts drawn from traditional mission orders. Leaders of all cohorts must have an understanding of the mission command philosophy to both lead and operate within the desired intent.

The 2013 CASAL was the first year to include assessment of Army leader effectiveness in demonstrating principles of the mission command philosophy and the extent current operational climates support mission command in practice. A goal has been to capture insights to support the Army's understanding and movement toward *Strategic End 1*: All Army leaders understand and practice the mission command philosophy (Department of the Army, 2013). The six principles of the mission command philosophy, as outlined in ADP 6-0, are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Principles of the Mission Command Philosophy and Associated CASAL items.

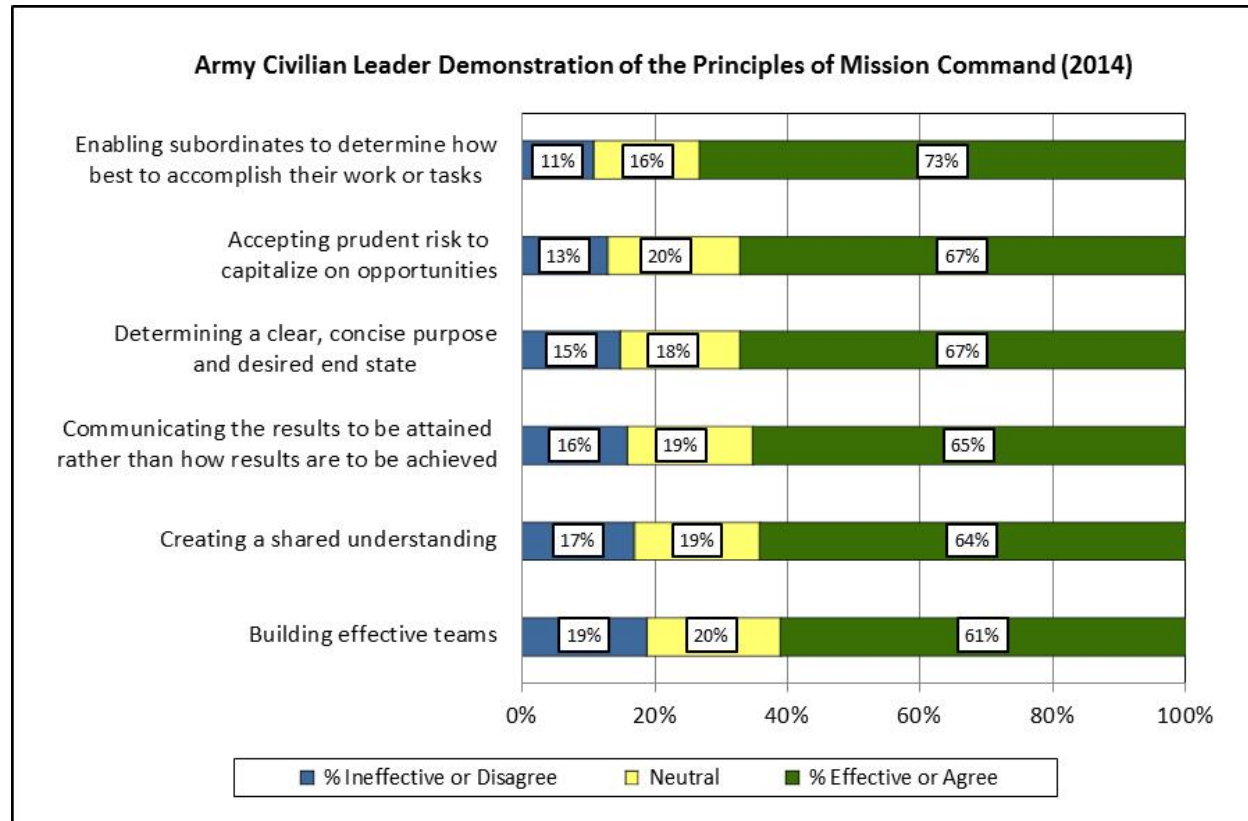
<i>Mission Command Principles ADP 6-0</i>	<i>CASAL Item "How effective is your immediate superior at..."</i>
<i>Build Cohesive Teams through Mutual Trust</i>	Building effective teams
<i>Create Shared Understanding</i>	Creating a shared understanding
<i>Provide a Clear Commander's Intent</i>	Determining a clear, concise purpose and desired end state
<i>Exercise Disciplined Initiative</i>	Enables subordinates to determine how best to accomplish their work or tasks (<i>Agreement item</i>)
<i>Use Mission Orders</i>	Communicating results to be attained rather than how results are to be achieved
<i>Accept Prudent Risk</i>	Accepting prudent risk to capitalize on opportunities

Civilian Leader Demonstration of the Mission Command Philosophy

A majority of Army civilians rate their civilian immediate superior favorably in demonstrating behaviors that reflect the six principles of mission command (see Figure 16). The results for each of these behavioral indicators are consistent with results first observed in the 2013 CASAL, and show no notable improvement or decline (-1% to +2%).

Nearly three-fourths of civilian leaders (73%) agree or strongly agree their immediate superior enables subordinates to determine how best to accomplish their work or tasks. This is an important indication that civilian leaders are given the latitude to exercise disciplined initiative. Two out of three civilian leaders are rated effective at determining a clear, concise purpose and desired end state (67%) and accepting prudent risk to capitalize on opportunities (67%). Slightly smaller percentages of civilian leaders are viewed as effective in communicating the results to be attained rather than how results are to be achieved (65%) and creating a shared understanding (64%). The relevant behavior with the most room for improvement is building effective teams; 61% of civilian leaders are rated effective while nearly one in five (19%) is rated ineffective.

Figure 16. Civilian Leader Behaviors Related to the Mission Command Philosophy.



Mission Command within Army Organizations

Civilian managers and first line supervisors continue to report positive attitudes toward several organizational climate indicators supportive of the mission command philosophy. Importantly, results also show a positive trend when comparing 2014 results to the 2013 CASAL. In 2014, a majority of civilian leaders rate the following characteristics of their assigned duties and work climate favorably:

- 76% are satisfied or very satisfied with the amount of freedom or latitude they have in the conduct of their duties (+3% compared to 2013).
- 76% agree members of their unit/organization are empowered to make decision pertaining to performance of their duties (+3% compared to 2013).
- 87% agree that members of their unit/organization are allowed and encouraged to learn from honest mistakes (+11% compared to 2013).
- 81% report the level of trust among members of their unit or organization is moderate, high or very high (+3% compared to 2013).
- 75% agree they feel encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things (no 2013 results for comparison).

These results, showing positive trends, provide an indication that civilian leader work climates are both positive and becoming more conducive to the mission command philosophy.

Favorable ratings by managers tend to be 3-7% higher than those of first line supervisors.

However, ratings by both cohorts continue to exceed a two-thirds favorability threshold on all of the indices.

Mission Command Doctrine

An additional indicator of Army leader awareness and understanding of the mission command philosophy is the level of familiarity with Army Doctrine Publication (ADP) 6-0, *Mission Command* (Department of the Army, 2012a). As expected, CASAL results show that civilian leader familiarity and awareness of this doctrine continues to lag behind that of uniformed leaders (see Table 4).

2014 CASAL results show that civilian leader familiarity with ADP 6-0 has not changed since last assessed in 2013. While larger percentages of managers report being somewhat or very familiar with ADP 6-0 than do first line supervisors, one-third of managers (36%) and just under half of first line supervisors (45%) are not familiar with the doctrine. In comparison, the reported levels of familiarity with ADP 6-0 increased for active duty uniformed leaders between 2013 and 2014.

Table 4. Army Leader Familiarity with Mission Command Doctrine, ADP 6-0.

	Not familiar with ADP 6-0, <i>Mission Command</i>	Heard of ADP 6-0, but not very familiar with it	Somewhat familiar with ADP 6-0, <i>Mission Command</i>	Very familiar with ADP 6-0, <i>Mission Command</i>
Managers	32% (36%)	17% (19%)	33% (30%)	15% (14%)
First Line Supervisors	45% (45%)	17% (21%)	26% (24%)	8% (9%)
Active Uniformed Leaders	13% (20%)	15% (21%)	46% (40%)	25% (19%)

Note. Results of the 2013 CASAL are presented in parentheses.

A goal of the mission command strategy is for Army-wide understanding and effective practice of the mission command philosophy. The 2014 CASAL is the second year in which several factors related to mission command were assessed. In summary, ratings for civilian leader effectiveness in demonstrating mission command principles remain moderately strong (i.e., exceed a two-thirds favorability threshold) and unchanged since 2013. Civilian manager and first line supervisor awareness and familiarity with mission command doctrine (ADP 6-0) remains low and has not increased over the past year. However, civilian leader attitudes toward organizational climate characteristics that are conducive to effective mission command are rated favorably and reflect a positive trend compared to 2013 results. Positive unit climate characteristics include civilian leader empowerment and job latitude for decision-making; learning climates that allow for honest mistakes and encourage new ways of doing things; and the level of trust among organizational members.

2.5 Influence

The 2014 CASAL asked respondents to assess the frequency with which they use various methods to influence others (i.e., their superiors, peers, and those subordinate to them). Nine methods of influence are described in Army leadership doctrine, ADRP 6-22, and are presented in Table 5 (Department of the Army, 2012b).

Doctrine states “leaders can draw on a variety of methods to influence others and can use one or more methods to fit the specifics of any situation. These outcomes range from obtaining compliance to building commitment to achieve” results (ADRP 6-22, 6-2). Experts in leadership research (e.g., Yukl 2002; Yukl & Tracey, 1992) note that choosing the appropriate influence strategy or strategies should be based on two key factors: the direction of influence (i.e., is the

influencer trying to influence their subordinates, peers or supervisors) and the objective of the influence attempt (i.e., is the outcome of the influence easy to obtain with little cost to either the agent or the recipient of influence, or is the outcome costly and challenging to the recipient). Yukl, Falbe & Young (1993) further found that the sequence and ordering of influence attempts can have an effect on the likelihood of success. Leaders who utilize the appropriate strategies or sequence of strategies based on the two conditions (i.e., the target of the influence strategy and the desired outcome) will have greater likelihood of influencing others to meet their end goal.

Table 5. Methods of influence described in ADRP 6-22, Army Leadership.

<i>Pressure</i>	Makes explicit demands to achieve compliance
<i>Legitimizing</i>	Emphasizes authority as the basis for a request
<i>Exchange</i>	Makes an offer in trade for compliance
<i>Personal Appeals</i>	Uses the basis of friendship or loyalty
<i>Collaboration</i>	Commits personal assistance or resources to fulfill a request
<i>Rational Persuasion</i>	Applies evidence, logical arguments or explanations of relevance
<i>Apprising</i>	Explains why an action will provide a benefit
<i>Inspirational Appeals</i>	Creates enthusiasm by arousing strong commitment
<i>Participation</i>	Gets buy-in by having you take part

Effective use of influence methods ultimately depends on a leader's recognition of the outcome or side-effect of the influence (e.g., compliance or commitment) and the direction of the individual(s) being influenced (downward, upward or lateral). Compliance is appropriate for rare, immediate requirements and situations where there is not a great need for a subordinate to understand why a request occurs. Compliance-seeking methods (i.e., pressure, legitimating, exchange, personal appeals) focus on meeting and accounting for task demands. Commitment-gaining methods (i.e., participation, inspiration, apprising, rational persuasion, collaboration) reach deeper to change attitudes, beliefs and behavior, and generally produce longer lasting and broader effects. Gaining commitment is useful when the aim is to create initiative and high esteem within others. Commitment grows from an individual's desire to gain a sense of control and develop self-worth by contributing to the organization. Commitment-encouraging influence emphasizes empowerment and long-lasting trust.

The 2013 CASAL found that a majority of Army civilian leaders are viewed to be effective in demonstrating the range of influence methods. More than two-thirds of respondents rated their immediate superior effective in demonstrating rational persuasion, collaboration, apprising, legitimating and participation. Smaller percentages of leaders rated their superior effective in using exchange (54%) and inspirational appeals (57%). Overall, larger percentages of

leaders use the preferred methods of influence to gain commitment as compared to compliance-gaining methods, which is a positive finding.

Use of Influence

The 2014 CASAL examined differences in the frequency with which Army civilians use methods of influence depending on the direction of the influence. Specifically, respondents were asked to rate the frequency with which they use various methods to influence their superiors, their peers, and those subordinate to them.¹¹

Table 6 presents the percentages of Army civilians that report frequently or very frequently using each influence method by the direction of the influence, ordered from the most frequent to least frequently-used method. Overall, the largest percentages of Army civilians report frequently or very frequently using methods to gain commitment from others (65% to 72%), including *collaboration*, *rational persuasion*, *apprising*, *participation* and *inspirational appeals*. Past research has found these five methods are most strongly linked to perceptions of effective leadership in the Army (Riley et al., 2014). In comparison, smaller percentages of Army civilians report frequently or very frequently using compliance-gaining methods (8% to 17%) including *personal appeals*, *pressure*, *legitimizing* and *exchange*. This observed pattern holds true regardless of the direction of the influence (i.e., with superiors, peers, or subordinates).

Table 6. Army Civilian Frequency in Using Methods of Influence (% Frequently or Very Frequently).

Influence Method Used	Direction of Influence			Overall Average
	Superiors	Peers/Colleagues	Subordinates	
Collaboration	67%	73%	76%	72%
Rational Persuasion	71%	71%	71%	71%
Apprising	69%	71%	72%	71%
Participation	61%	68%	69%	66%
Inspirational Appeals	60%	67%	68%	65%
Commitment Methods Average	66%	70%	71%	69%
Personal Appeals	15%	19%	18%	17%
Pressure	14%	16%	18%	16%
Legitimizing	9%	10%	10%	10%
Exchange	8%	8%	8%	8%
Compliance Methods Average	12%	13%	14%	13%

¹¹ To minimize survey length, CASAL respondents were randomly assigned to one of three survey paths to respond to items regarding methods used to influence their superiors or their peers/colleagues or those subordinate to them.

The frequency of usage of compliance-gaining methods shows little difference depending on the direction of influence. The five commitment methods, on the other hand, are used most frequently with subordinates (71%) and peers (70%), and least frequently with superiors (66%).

Table 7 displays the percentages of Army civilians by supervisory level that report using influence methods either frequently or very frequently regardless of the direction of influence. There are slight differences in the overall reported frequency of use for the methods of influence across the three cohorts. Examining usage of compliance versus commitment-gaining methods, the following observations are made:

- Larger percentages of managers (78%) and first line supervisors (70%) report using commitment methods compared to non-supervisory employees (57%).
- Non-supervisory employees (12%), first line supervisors (13%), and managers (14%) report using compliance-gaining methods with similar frequencies.
- Managers report using *participation* (80%), *inspirational appeals* (75%), and *apprising* (80%) with far greater frequency than non-supervisory employees (48% for *participation*, 52% for *inspirational appeals*, and 59% for *apprising*).

Table 7. Army Civilian Use of Influence Methods by Rank Cohort.

Percentage of Army Civilians Reporting 'Frequent or Very Frequent Use' of Influence Methods			
Influence Method Used	Non-Supervisory Employees	First Line Supervisors	Managers
Rational Persuasion	62%	71%	80%
Collaboration	64%	74%	77%
Apprising	59%	72%	80%
Inspirational Appeals	52%	67%	75%
Participation	48%	68%	80%
Commitment Methods Average	57%	70%	78%
Personal Appeals	18%	17%	17%
Pressure	13%	16%	18%
Legitimizing	9%	10%	10%
Exchange	8%	8%	9%
Compliance Methods Average	12%	13%	14%

Relationships between Influence, Trust and Effective Leadership

The levels of trust Army civilians have in others (i.e., their superiors, peers, and subordinates) have a small but significant impact on the frequency with which leaders report using methods

to influence others. Table 8 displays the results of a canonical correlation analysis¹² examining the impact leaders' ratings of trust in others has on the frequency with which they report using each of the nine methods when influencing the respective cohort.

Results reflect a general pattern that Army civilians who hold higher levels of trust in others more often report frequently using commitment-gaining methods to influence those others.

- Army civilians reporting higher levels of trust in others more often report using *participation, inspirational appeals, collaboration, and rational persuasion* to influence superiors and peers.
- Army civilians that hold high levels of trust in their subordinates report frequently using all five commitment-gaining methods to influence their subordinates.
- In instances where the level of trust in peers is low, Army civilians more often report frequently using the compliance-gaining method of *exchange* to influence peers.
- In instances where trust is low in subordinates, Army civilians more often report frequently using *legitimizing* when influencing subordinates.

Table 8. Relationships between Level of Trust and Frequency of Using Influence Methods.

Influence Method Used	Direction of Influence and Level of Trust		
	Superiors	Peers/Colleagues	Subordinates
Commitment	--	--	--
Collaboration	.08**	.10**	.13**
Rational Persuasion	.09**	.07**	.15**
Apprising	.07*	.05*	.15**
Inspirational Appeals	.07*	.10**	.19**
Participation	.10**	.12**	.24**
Compliance	--	--	--
Pressure	-.02	.02	-.04
Legitimizing	-.02	.01	-.11**
Exchange	-.03	-.07*	-.05
Personal Appeals	-.02	.01	-.06
Overall Impact	$R_c^2 = .03, p < .001$	$R_c^2 = .03, p < .001$	$R_c^2 = .08, p < .001$

**Significant at the .01 level.

*Significant at the .05 level.

¹² Three canonical correlations, based on the direction of influence, were conducted to examine the contribution leaders' ratings of trust in each target cohort has on the frequency leaders' use each influence method with the respective cohort. Canonical correlation analysis (CCA) is a statistical test to examine the relationship between multiple predictors (i.e., overall trust in unit and trust in specific cohort) on multiple outcome variables in a single analysis (i.e., reported frequency in using each influence method). Results from a CCA identify the overall contribution the set of predictors have on the set of outcome variables. In other words, the results indicate the amount of variance in the usage of all influence methods that is accounted for by leaders' reported level of trust. In addition, CCA indicates the relative relationship each predictor (i.e., trust in peers) has on each of the outcome variables (i.e., frequency of using each specific influence method) – expressed as standardized beta weight.

Army civilian perceptions regarding the effectiveness of their superiors, peers and subordinates as leaders also demonstrated a small impact on the frequency with which they report using various methods of influence. Civilians who rate their superiors, peers and subordinates as effective leaders more often report that they frequently use commitment-gaining influence methods rather than compliance-gaining methods, although the strength of the relationships tend to be small (i.e., r 's = .05 to .18, p 's < .05).

Summary of Findings on Climate and Situational Factors within the Working Environment

The percentage of civilian leaders reporting high or very high morale has re-stabilized after a drop in 2013 that sharply mirrored a federal climate of challenge and uncertainty. Career satisfaction remains at a favorable level but has experienced a steady decline since 2011. Civilian leaders continue to report moderate to strong levels of engagement in their duties. Favorable characteristics of working environments include civilian leader satisfaction with the degree of freedom or latitude in their jobs, agreement that standards are upheld, and team collaboration to achieve results. Stress from a high workload continues to be a serious problem for one in three civilian managers and first line supervisors. While half of civilian leaders agree seeking help for stress-related problems is accepted and encouraged, only 58% of civilian leaders are rated effective at taking action to help subordinates manage excessive workload demands.

The levels of trust Army civilians hold in those with whom they work have increased slightly compared to 2013 results. From 75% to over 90% of Army civilians hold moderate, high or very high trust in their subordinates, peers and immediate superiors. Trust is high in organizations that enable members to make decisions pertaining to their duties, allow and encourage learning from honest mistakes, encourage new and better ways of doing things and uphold standards. There are positive linkages between effective leadership, trust, and positive organizational and subordinate outcomes. Civilian leaders who are viewed effective at building trust are also perceived as positively impacting subordinate motivation, work quality and commitment, as well as team cohesion.

Assessments of civilian leader effectiveness in demonstrating mission command principles remain moderately strong (i.e., exceed a two-thirds favorability threshold) and unchanged since 2013. Civilian manager and first line supervisor awareness and familiarity with mission command doctrine (ADP 6-0) remains low. However, civilian leader attitudes toward organizational climate characteristics that are conducive to effective mission command are rated favorably and reflect a positive trend.

More civilian leaders report using methods of influence to gain commitment from others compared to leaders who use methods that require compliance. Commitment-gaining methods of influence are most strongly linked to perceptions of effective leadership in the Army.

3. Quality of Leader Development

CASAL assesses and tracks trends in the quality of leader development in the Army. Findings on civilian leader development are organized by the following topic areas:

- The Army Leader Development Model
- Civilian Leader Development
- Leader Development Methods and Programs
- Self-Development
- Civilian Education System (CES)

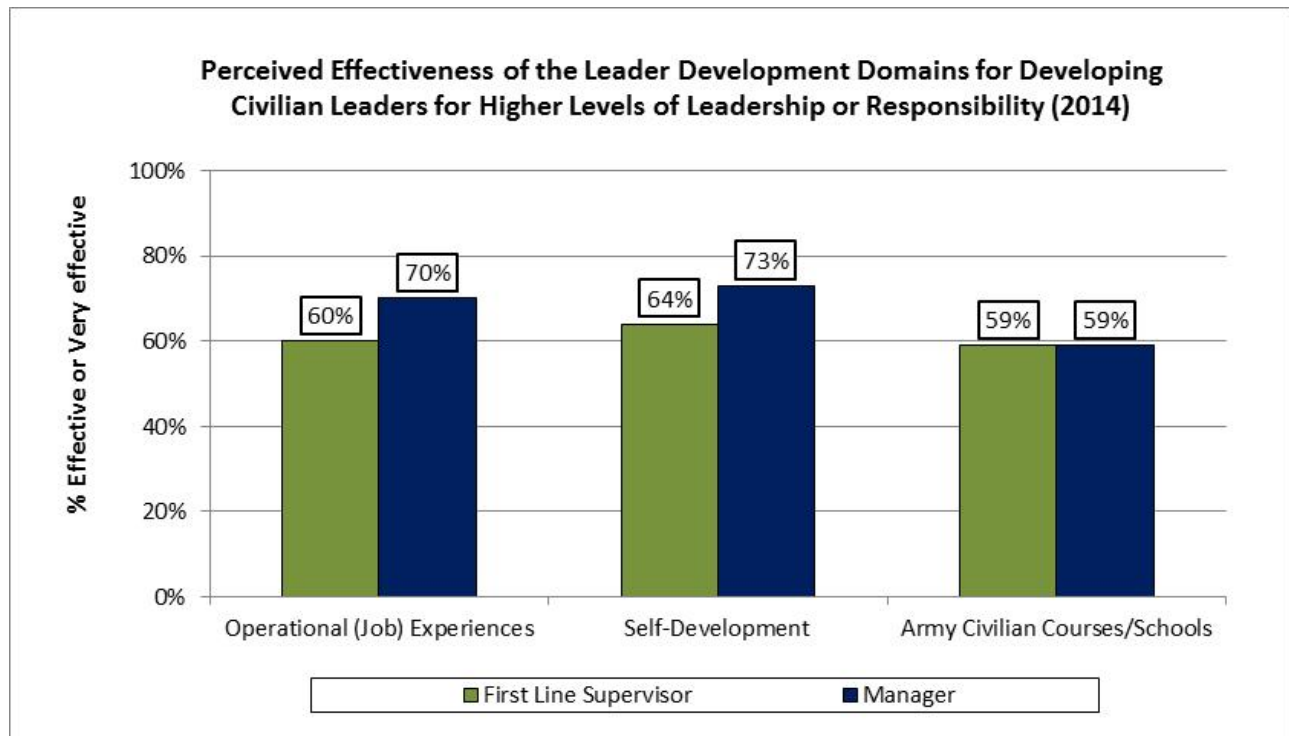
Key findings for each topic area provide an assessment of the current quality, engagement, effectiveness, role and level of support for civilian leader development in the Army.

3.1 The Army Leader Development Model

Leader development is a continuous and progressive process, and spans a leader's entire career. The Army's leader development model comprises training, education, and experience gained through three mutually supporting domains: operational, self-development, and institutional. By design, a majority of leader development occurs in operational assignments and through self-development, as limited time is allotted for schoolhouse learning (Department of the Army, 2012c).

CASAL has tracked the effectiveness and relative positive impact of the three leader development domains in preparing civilian leaders for higher levels of leadership responsibility. The percentages of managers and first line supervisors rating each domain effective or very effective in 2014 are presented in Figure 17. A consistent pattern observed by CASAL is the relatively larger percentage of civilian leaders who favor self-development and operational experience over the development that occurs through institutional courses and schools.

Figure 17. The Perceived Effectiveness of the Leader Development Domains by Civilian Leaders.



Operational (Job) Experiences

Civilian leaders enhance their leadership skills and prepare for future roles and responsibilities through leadership opportunities and experiences in their current roles. Sixty-four percent of civilian leaders (70% of managers and 60% of first line supervisors) indicate their job experiences have been effective or very effective in developing them for higher levels of leadership or responsibility (11% and 16%, respectively, indicate they have been ineffective).¹³ Further, civilian leaders have consistently viewed ongoing opportunities for development such as opportunities to lead others and on-the-job training as having a large or great impact on their development (74% and 67%, respectively, in 2014).

Self-Development

Self-development encompasses the planned, goal-oriented learning that reinforces and expands the depth and breadth of an individual's knowledge base, self-awareness and situational awareness to enhance professional competence and meet personal objectives

¹³ The percentage of civilian leaders rating operational job experiences as effective/very effective (64%) is significantly lower than ratings by active duty uniformed leaders (79%).

(Department of the Army, 2012c). Self-development represents a continuous, life-long process that is used to supplement and enhance knowledge and skills Army leaders gain through their operational experiences and institutional education and training (Day, Harrison, & Halpin, 2009).

Overall, 68% of civilian leaders (73% of managers and 64% of first line supervisors) rate their self-development as effective or very effective for preparing them to assume new levels of leadership or responsibility. Only 7% of civilian leaders rate their self-development as ineffective. Additionally, self-development is moderately strong in developing civilian leaders, as 60% report that their self-development has had a large or great impact on their development as leaders (28% report a moderate impact).

Institutional Education

Of civilian leaders who have attended a civilian education course at some point in their career, 59% rate Army civilian courses/schools effective or very effective in developing them for higher levels of leadership or responsibility. Nearly one-third of civilian leaders (28%) rate their Army education as neither effective nor ineffective in developing them, while 14% rate it ineffective.

As a leader development practice, Army course attendance is not widely viewed as impactful on development. Larger percentages of civilian leaders view resident course attendance as having a large or great impact on their development (41%) compared to nonresident or distributed learning (DL) courses (25%). About one-third of civilian leaders view either resident attendance or DL/nonresident courses as having a moderate impact on their development (30% and 35%, respectively). These findings represent consistent trends observed by CASAL.

3.2 Civilian Leader Development

Army Regulation 350-1 states that civilian leader development (training and education) will “prepare agile and innovative Army civilians who can lead during times of change and uncertainty; are prepared for the rigors of service as multi-skilled leaders; and are armed with the values, skills and mindset to serve as competent, resilient members of the Army Civilian Corps” (Department of the Army, 2014).

Leader development for Army civilians is fundamentally different from uniformed leader development because of the differing terms of federal employment and conditions of military commissions, appointments and assignments. One indication of this difference is reflected in the average length of time a civilian leader has in an organization of over ten years (see page 1

of this report), compared to the typical two- to three-year assignments for Soldiers. Time-based progression in ranks for Soldiers is another difference compared to conditions of Army civilian employment. Most Army civilians are hired for a position at a fully qualified level and can stay until they choose to leave (or are terminated). Most federal positions have no guarantee of advancement and limited opportunities within an organization's structure for advancement. Most openings occur when a current employee decides to leave a position. Pay advancement within a General Schedule (GS) grade occurs automatically by tenure, and is not based on development or superior performance. Advancement to positions of greater responsibility is an individual choice for Army civilians, while it is a condition for Soldiers in order for them to stay until retirement or the Army decides on their separation. One outcome of the civilian system is that civilian leaders have an unofficial disincentive to develop subordinates, because current members usually leave the direct supervisor's work unit or the organization to receive advancement.

The results of several broad indicators confirm that civilian leader development occurs at moderate levels in the Army. First, 2014 CASAL results show that civilian leader development is not perceived to be a top priority in Army organizations. Two-thirds of managers and first line supervisors (66%) perceive that leaders in their unit or organization develop the leadership skills of their subordinates to a 'slight' or 'moderate' extent. Only about one in four (23%) believes leader development occurs to a 'large' or 'great' extent, and these results remain unchanged since first assessed in 2012.

Results of the 2013 Army Civilian Attitude Survey also show moderate levels of civilian leader development in organizations, and provide additional insight (Civilian Personnel Evaluation Agency, 2013b). Specifically, this survey found:

- Only half of civilian supervisors indicated satisfaction with the priority their organization places on leader development (48%) and with the quality of available leader development training (48%). Satisfaction for both indicators shows a slight increase (+3%) since 2010.
- Less than half indicated satisfaction with the availability of opportunities to expand the range of their skills (43%) and with developmental assignments that offer experience in other functions in their organization (39%). Both indicators are consistent with 2010.
- Fifty-six percent agreed they are given a real opportunity to improve their skills in their organization; the level of agreement declined 5% since assessed in 2010.

More recently, the 2014 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey reported that 61% of Army civilian respondents agreed or strongly agreed that supervisors in their work unit support employee development. Just over half (57%) agreed or strongly agreed they are given a real opportunity

to improve their skills in their organization, while smaller percentages (48%) indicated satisfaction with the training they receive for their present job. Importantly, the favorable level of response for each of these indicators shows a pattern of decline since 2006 (-7% to -10%) (United States Office of Personnel Management, 2014).

Civilian Leader Effectiveness in Developing Others

The core leader competency *Develops Others* has consistently received the least favorable assessments across rank levels and positions. In 2014, 52% of civilian leaders are rated effective at developing their subordinates while 24% are rated ineffective. Since 2009, the percentage of civilian leaders rated effective in developing subordinates has ranged from 50% to 54%, while the percentage rated ineffective has ranged from 22% to 27% (about one in four).

New to the 2014 CASAL were assessments of several doctrinal behaviors (ADRP 6-22) that comprise the competency *Develops Others*. About half of civilian leaders (52% to 55%) are rated effective across these behaviors, while nearly one-fourth are rated ineffective (see Figure 18). Results show strong relationships between civilian leader effectiveness on each of these behaviors and the competency *Develops Others*:

- Coaching subordinates to improve what they are capable of doing ($r = .82, p < .001$)
- Assessing the developmental needs of subordinates ($r = .82, p < .001$)
- Providing appropriate developmental feedback ($r = .82, p < .001$)
- Creating or calling attention to leader development opportunities ($r = .76, p < .001$)

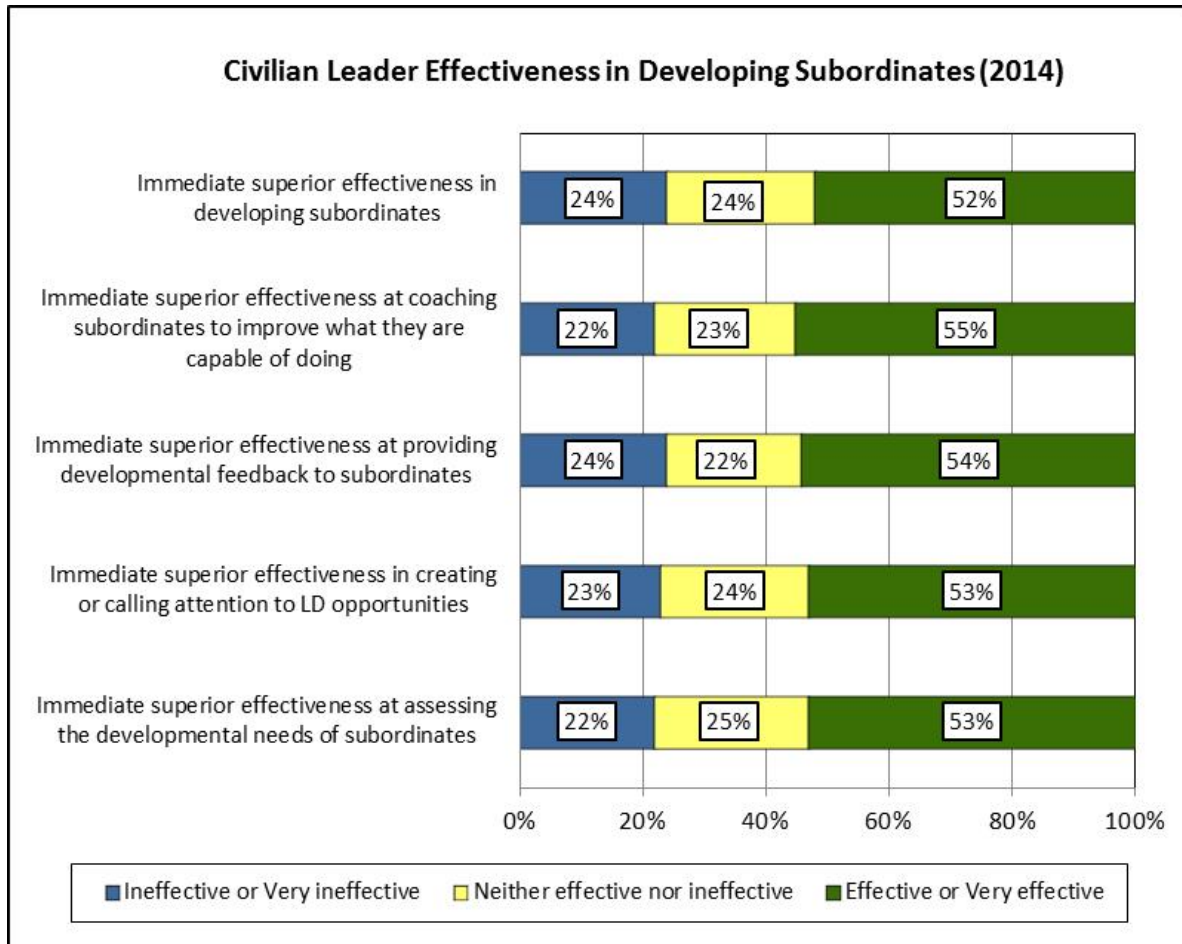
Results of the 2013 Army Civilian Attitude Survey support these CASAL findings. Specifically, this survey found that less than half of civilian supervisor respondents (46%) indicated satisfaction with the way their supervisor creates or calls attention to leader development opportunities, while 23% were dissatisfied. While low, this level of satisfaction shows slight improvement (+4%) since previously assessed in 2010 (Civilian Personnel Evaluation Agency, 2013b).

Similarly, findings from the 2014 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (United States Office of Personnel Management, 2014) provide additional indications and trends for civilian leader effectiveness in developing others:

- In 2014, about half of civilian respondents (49%) agreed or strongly agreed that their training needs are assessed. This level of agreement represents a 7% decline compared to results observed in the 2010 survey (56%).
- Also in 2014, more than half of civilian respondents agreed or strongly agreed that their supervisor provides them with constructive suggestions to improve their job performance (58%) and provides them with opportunities to demonstrate their

leadership (63%). Again, levels of agreement for each of these indicators show a decline since 2010 (-3% and -5%, respectively).

Figure 18. Ratings for Civilian Leader Effectiveness in Developing Subordinates.



Subordinate Development Actions

The 2014 CASAL sought to understand the types of activities that constitute civilian leader development between supervisors and subordinates. An additional goal was to understand the types of activities that leaders perceive they are provided by their immediate superior, so that comparisons between these two conditions may be made. CASAL respondents were first asked to describe the actions they have taken in the past year to develop the leadership skills of their subordinates. Similarly, at a later point in the survey, respondents were asked to describe the actions their immediate superior has taken in the past year to develop their (i.e., the respondent's) leadership skills. Comments were analyzed using a common list of themes to facilitate comparisons between these two viewpoints. Five broad categories of themes emerged from the comments and included: Promoting continuous learning; providing

learning/developmental opportunities; assessing performance and development; focusing on individual development; and exemplifying leader behaviors and values.

Promote continuous learning. This category of themes most frequently indicated leaders recommended, authorized, or allowed for their subordinate to attend training or education. This included allowing time for subordinates to attend resident courses and to complete distributed learning during work hours. Recommendations and referrals were also frequently mentioned and included recommendations for education and training through college courses or certifications, but also books and other developmental materials. Less frequently mentioned were instances of leaders directly providing training or teaching to enhance learning, including on-the-job training individually or instruction provided to a group or team.

Provide learning/developmental opportunities. The comments within this category included themes related to leaders providing subordinates with learning conditions such as job latitude and opportunities to lead. Respondents mentioned providing subordinates the autonomy to make their own decisions and choose courses of action to solve their own issues. A second prevalent theme in this category included delegating tasks to subordinates and expanding their responsibilities outside of their normal duties. Less frequently mentioned were activities such as providing challenging or developmental assignments (including broadening), having subordinates participate in the decision making process and/or soliciting their input.

Assess performance and development. Within this category of themes, respondents frequently cited broad approaches to assessing and developing their subordinates such as developmental counseling, performance counseling, references to counseling that were nondescript about the intended purpose, and formal evaluations. Counseling was often described as verbal and informal. Providing honest feedback and identifying strengths and weaknesses were also cited as methods used to develop subordinates.

Focus on individual development. Themes within this category reflected interpersonal methods of supporting or fostering subordinate development such as mentoring and encouraging subordinate goal-setting (e.g., IDP development), sharing advice and lessons learned, taking a personal interest in subordinates and making time to interact one-on-one.

Exemplify leader behaviors and values. These comments most prevalently emphasized developing subordinates through *Leading by Example*, but also through fostering teamwork and cohesion, communicating effectively, and providing encouragement, motivation and praise to subordinates.

Comments regarding actions that civilian leader respondents had taken to develop their subordinates resulted in the following categorizations:

- *Promoting continuous learning* was overwhelmingly the most often mentioned category of themes (mentioned by 6 out of 7 respondents).
- *Providing learning/developmental opportunities* and *focusing on individual development* were categories of themes that received mention at nearly the same frequency (mentioned by roughly 1 out of 3 respondents).
- The least frequently mentioned themes related to *assessing performance and development* (1 out of 4 respondents) and *exemplifying leader behaviors* (1 out of 6 respondents).

In comparison, comments regarding actions that Army civilian respondents' immediate superiors had taken resulted in the following categorizations:

- *Promoting continuous learning* was the category of themes that received the most frequent mention (1 out of 4 respondents).
- Less frequently mentioned were themes related to *providing learning/developmental opportunities* (1 out of 6 respondents), *focusing on individual development* (1 out of 8 respondents), and *assessing performance and development* (1 out of 9 respondents). *Exemplify leader behaviors* was the least frequently mentioned category of themes in the comments (1 out of 12 respondents).
- *Lack of development occurring* – Army civilian respondents' comments indicated that their immediate superior provided them with 'no' development in the past year (mentioned by almost 4 out of 10 respondents).

These findings support two key conclusions. First, many civilian leaders perceive development to be an activity that a subordinate is sent to or directed to do. Examples include leader recommendations, authorizations or referrals to resident and nonresident military education and training; online training (military or otherwise); education outside of the Army (e.g., college attendance); and other materials a subordinate can work on independently (e.g., books, self-development). There are indications that many leaders still view 'counseling' as a primary method to develop subordinates.

Second, a larger proportion of civilian leader respondents report they have engaged in proactive subordinate development than they give their immediate superior credit for doing. Civilian respondents were much more likely to indicate they had not benefited from any development from their immediate superior in the past year, a pattern also observed in results for uniformed leaders. The disparity is not unexpected, and supports two assumptions: 1) leaders may be biased in what they view as developmental activities and the frequency of

occurrence (i.e., giving more credit to themselves than their immediate superior), and 2) leaders do not always recognize instances when they are being developed by their immediate superior.

There are two notable differences between results for Army civilians and active duty uniformed leaders. First, civilians more frequently report engaging in and receiving development related to *promoting continuous learning* (e.g., referrals, recommendations and authorizations for course attendance and training) than uniformed leaders. In comparison, uniformed leaders more often report they receive development through methods related to *assessing performance and development* (e.g., performance counseling, evaluations). Second, a relatively larger percentage of civilian leaders report they have received no development from their immediate superior in the past year (almost 4 out of 10) compared to active duty uniformed leaders (1 in 4).

Formal and Informal Counseling

Thirty-two percent of civilian leaders report they receive formal or informal performance counseling semi-annually, while 28% report they receive it at rating time (see Table 9). Thirteen percent indicate they ‘never or almost never’ receive formal or informal counseling, which falls short of the requirement for civilians to conduct this annually (per AR 690-400). Sixty-one percent of civilian leader respondents characterize the frequency with which they currently receive formal or informal performance counseling as ‘about right’ while more than one-third (36%) believe they receive counseling too infrequently or much too infrequently.

Table 9. Frequency in which Army Civilian Leaders Report Receiving Counseling (2014).

How Often do you Receive Formal or Informal Performance Counseling?					
Civilian Leaders	Monthly or More Often	Quarterly	Semi-Annually	At Rating Time	Never or Almost Never
Managers	18%	12%	29%	27%	14%
First Line Supervisors	12%	13%	34%	29%	12%
Total	15%	12%	32%	28%	13%

Less than half of civilian leaders (42%) agree the feedback they received during their last performance counseling was useful in helping them to set performance goals for improvement (27% disagree). The results demonstrate steady trends, as the frequency and quality with which civilian leaders report receiving performance counseling are consistent with results observed since 2012. Taken together, these results suggest that for some civilian leaders, there is currently an unmet need with regard to the frequency and usefulness of formal and informal performance counseling.

As reported in the 2013 CASAL, less formal developmental interactions are more common than formal performance counseling (Riley et al., 2014). These types of interactions include supervisor-subordinate discussions on job performance, performance improvement and preparation for future roles. The 2013 results showed that modest percentages of civilian leaders agreed or strongly agreed their immediate superior takes the time to talk with them about how they are doing in their work (64%); how they could improve duty performance (52%); and what they should do to prepare for future assignments (41%). To extend these findings, the 2014 CASAL examined the relative frequency with which these types of interactions occur between superiors and subordinates. Overall, civilian leaders report that their immediate superior talks with them about the following:

- How they are doing in their work – 39% frequently or very frequently; 53% rarely or occasionally; 8% never
- How they could improve their duty performance – 20% frequently or very frequently; 65% rarely or occasionally; 15% never
- What to do to prepare for future assignments – 19% frequently or very frequently; 53% rarely or occasionally; 28% never

Results of other surveys demonstrate comparable attitudes by civilian leaders regarding the frequency and quality of performance feedback and counseling they receive:

- In the 2013 Army Civilian Attitude Survey, 57% of civilian supervisor respondents indicated they receive regular performance feedback, and an equal percentage (57%) agreed the performance feedback they receive is useful. A promising finding is that 71% of supervisors agreed that discussions with their supervisor about their performance are worthwhile (Civilian Personnel Evaluation Agency, 2013b).
- The 2014 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey reported that 72% of respondents agreed that their supervisor had talked with them about their performance in the last six months, a stable finding since 2010. Additionally, 60% (all Army civilian respondents) agreed that discussions with their supervisor about their performance are worthwhile; the level of agreement for this indicator has fluctuated between 59% and 64% since 2006 (United States Officer of Personnel Management, 2014).

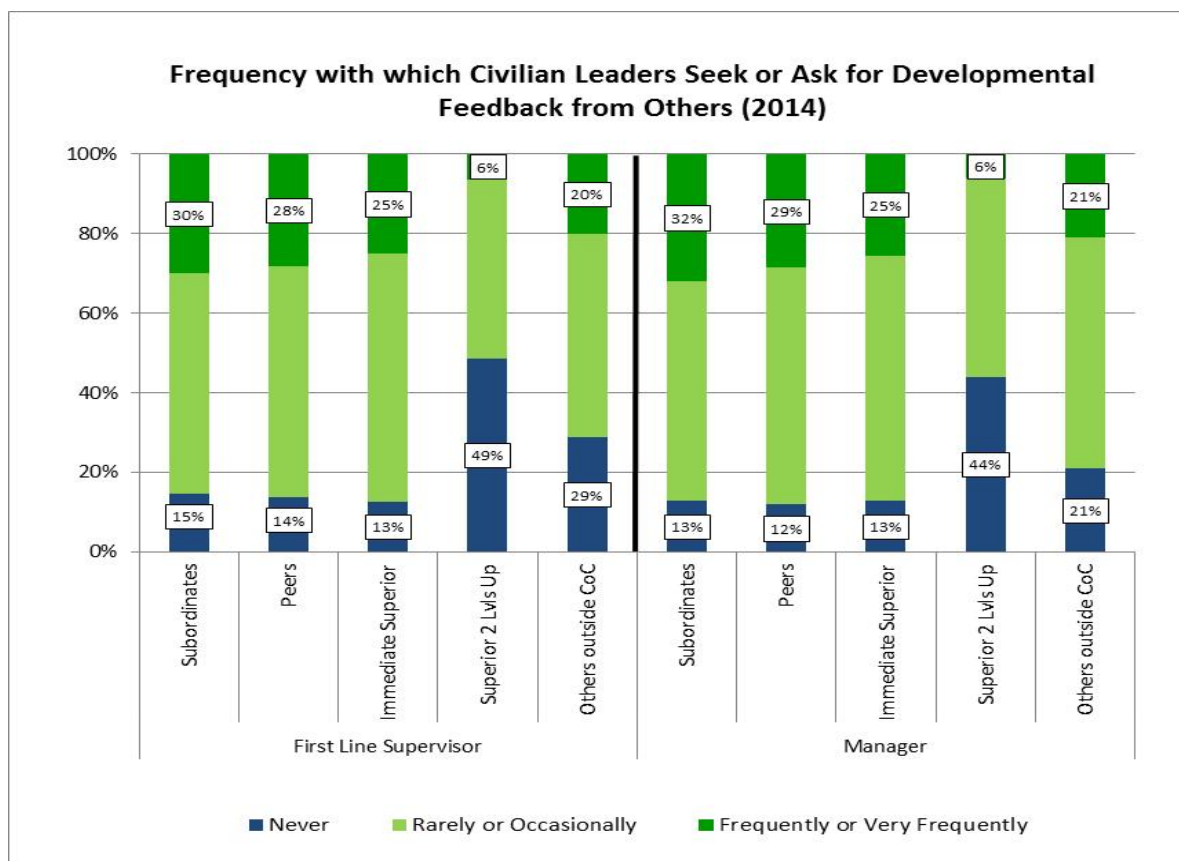
Seeking Developmental Feedback

The 2014 CASAL sought to gain new insights regarding the frequency with which civilian leaders currently seek or ask for developmental feedback from others. Overall results indicate nearly one-third of civilian leaders frequently or very frequently ask for developmental feedback from subordinates (31%) and peers (28%), while one-fourth ask their immediate superior (25%).

Small percentages of civilian leaders (6%) indicate they frequently ask for developmental feedback from their superior two levels higher, while nearly half (47%) indicate they never do so (see Figure 19).

Additionally, one-fifth of civilian leaders (20%) report they frequently or very frequently seek or ask for developmental feedback from others outside of their chain of command, often including friends or acquaintances; former supervisors, colleagues and co-workers; mentors; and peers outside of the chain of command or Army.

Figure 19. Frequency with which Civilian Leaders Report Seeking Developmental Feedback from Others. ¹⁴



¹⁴ The percentages of civilian leaders who report frequently/very frequently asking for developmental feedback from their peers (28%), immediate superior (25%) and others outside the chain of command (20%) are significantly lower than the percentages of active duty uniformed leaders for each condition (48%, 40%, 34%, respectively).

Mentoring

The Army's definition of mentoring describes a voluntary and developmental relationship that exists between a person of greater experience and a person of lesser experience, characterized by mutual trust and respect (Department of the Army, 2007). *Army Leadership* (ADRP 6-22) expounds on this definition by identifying general characteristics of a mentoring relationship. Namely, mentorship affects both personal and professional development; both individuals must be active participants; and contrary to common perceptions, mentoring is not limited to superior-subordinate relationships.

In the Army, mentorship is more common in the uniformed culture than it is in the civilian workforce. CASAL results show that in comparison to uniformed leaders, smaller percentages of civilian leaders have mentors. Overall, 27% of civilian leaders report currently receiving mentoring (from one or more mentors) compared to 58% of uniformed leaders. Similarly, about half of civilian leaders (54%) indicate they serve as a mentor to others, compared to 62% of uniformed leaders.

Results of the 2013 Army Civilian Attitude Survey also demonstrate the relatively low prevalence with which civilian leaders receive mentoring. The survey found that only 16% of civilian supervisors reported receiving 'a lot' to 'a great deal' of help from a formal or informal mentor on planning their career path in the Army. Nearly half of civilian supervisors reported receiving 'a little' to 'a moderate amount' of help from a mentor, while 37% reported receiving no help (Civilian Personnel Evaluation Agency, 2013b).

The 2014 CASAL findings show that mentorship of Army civilian leaders is characterized by the following:

- About one-third of civilian leaders (35%) indicate their mentor is their immediate superior or supervisor, while 30% indicate it is a person outside of their organization or chain of command.
- Two-thirds of civilian leaders (68%) interact with their mentor monthly or more often; 33% report receiving mentoring weekly or more often. A majority of civilian leaders (87%) characterize the frequency of interaction with their mentor as 'about right' while about one in eight (12%) believe they interact with their mentor too infrequently.
- Seventy-one percent of civilian leaders who receive mentoring indicate the relationship has had a large or great impact on their development; 28% rate the impact as moderate.

These findings are generally positive and are consistent with results observed in 2013. For civilian leaders who receive mentoring, the need is generally being met with regard to the frequency of interaction and the impact on development.

3.3 Leader Development Practices and Programs

Since 2009, CASAL has assessed and tracked trends on the relative contribution that various practices have on civilian leader development. In 2014, respondents rated a list of ten developmental practices in terms of the positive impact each has had on their development as a leader. As findings on the positive impact of these practices are integrated into results discussions throughout this report, a brief overview and summary is provided here. Leader development practices are activities such as on-the-job training, opportunities to lead others, mentoring, self-development, resident and nonresident course attendance, and learning from others.

As reported in the findings for the 2011 CASAL, the frequency with which civilian leaders engage in leader development practices varies (Riley et al., 2012). More than three-fourths of civilian leaders reported frequently or very frequently engaging in opportunities to lead others (78%) while about half frequently learned from peers (55%) and trained on-the-job (47%). Practices that civilian leaders reported more often engaging in only 'occasionally' or 'rarely' include self-development activities (52%), learning from superiors (54%), formal leader development programs (60%), and developmental counseling from a supervisor (67%).

The relative rank ordering of practices in terms of their positive impact on development has remained stable across the past several years (see Figure 20 for 2014 results). Civilian leaders tend to view less-formal methods of learning as having a large or great positive impact on their development. Several of these practices relate to development that occurs through operational work experiences and interpersonal interactions:

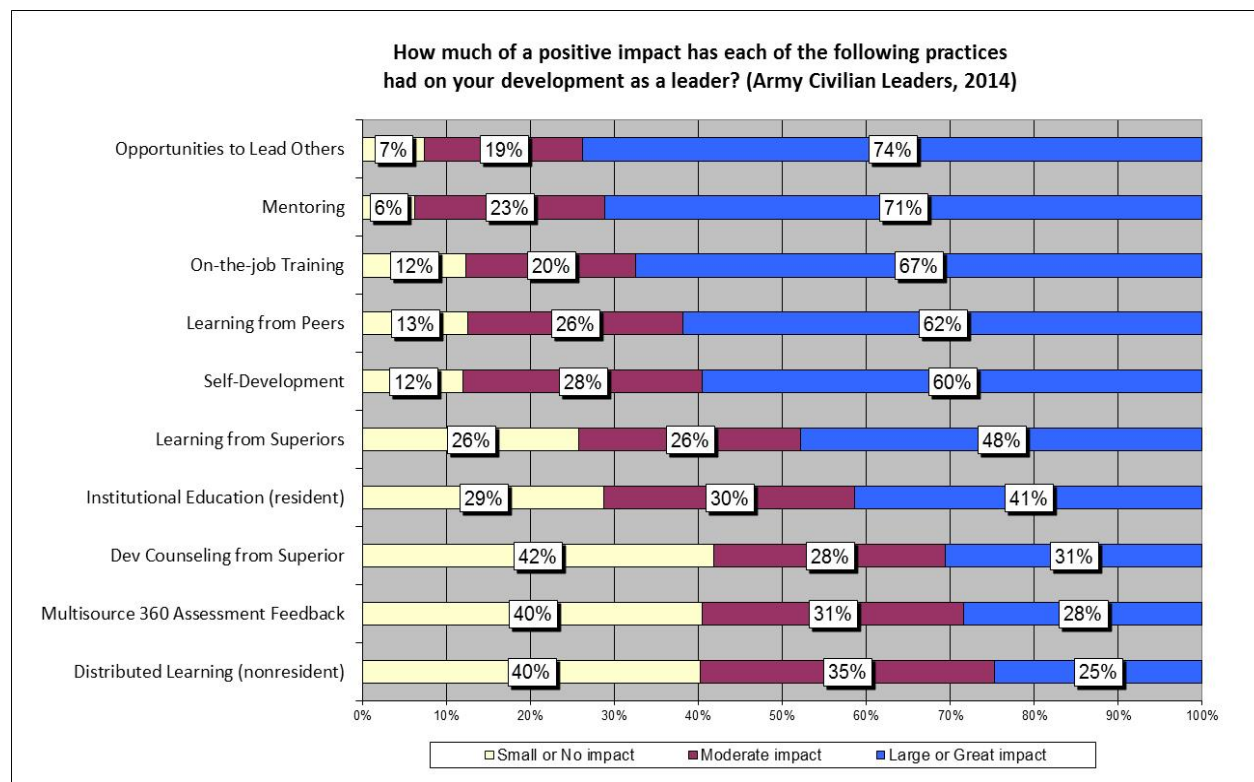
- Opportunities to lead others – 74%
- Mentoring – 71%
- On-the-job training – 67%
- Learning from peers (e.g., observing, collaborating, receiving feedback) – 62%
- Self-development activities – 60%

Small percentages of civilian leaders (13% or less) view these practices as having a small, very little or no impact on their development.

In comparison, smaller percentages of civilian leaders view learning from superiors (48%), formal institutional education (41%), developmental counseling from one's supervisor (31%),

360-degree assessment feedback (28%), and required DL (25%) as having a large or great impact on development.

Figure 20. The Impact of Various Practices on the Development of Army Civilian Leaders.¹⁵



The Army 360/MSAF Program

The Army 360/MSAF, a program of record operated by the Center for Army Leadership (CAL), provides uniformed and civilian leaders a validated 360-degree approach to garnering feedback. Assessments from superiors, peers, and subordinates, can be compared to the leader's self-assessment based on the Army Leadership Requirements Model (ADP 6-22). Major goals of the program are to increase leaders' self-awareness of their abilities and to help them improve their leadership. The program features: individual and unit-level feedback reports; confidential and anonymous feedback from others; developmental resources available online (i.e., the Virtual Improvement Center); no cost to the unit or leader (other than time); and dedicated support staff. The program is complemented by a professional coaching component whereby MSAF participants interact with a coach (in person, via telephone, or via e-mail) to

¹⁵ The percentage of civilian leaders who rate on-the-job training (67%), learning from peers (62%) and learning from superiors (48%) as having a large/great impact on their development is significantly lower than ratings by active duty uniformed leaders (83%, 75% and 64%, respectively).

receive assistance in interpreting their feedback report; to create an individual leadership development plan (ILDLP); and to receive suggestions on resources and activities for developing their leadership skills.

Overall, 21% of civilian leader respondents reported having been assessed through the Army MSAF program at some point in their career (a 5% increase since 2013). An additional 16% of civilian leader respondents indicated they participated in the program only to assess someone else. Nearly three-fourths of assessed civilian leaders (72%) rate the program effective for making them more aware of their strengths and developmental needs. Smaller percentages of respondents rate MSAF effective for improving their leadership capabilities (61%) and for improving their unit or organization (47%).¹⁶ Overall, these results show a gradual decline in favorable ratings by civilian leader respondents since 2012.

The results of MSAF program evaluation research reported by Hinds & Freeman (2014) indicated that about one-third of Army civilians (33%) self-initiated their MSAF assessment (i.e., to increase their personal insight) while nearly half (47%) participated to fulfill a requirement (i.e., as part of a unit-wide event or course requirement). Other findings indicated that nearly two-thirds of Army civilians reported devoting minimal effort to their own development planning in the months following their MSAF participation; 40% spent less than five hours per month, while 24% had no plan to set aside time for their development. These results are notable, as the MSAF experience is optimized only when leaders take action beyond the assessment and feedback component (i.e., request additional feedback from others, interact with a coach, develop an ILDP, and engage in self-initiated learning). These later components of the program are valuable but require time, effort and commitment by leaders to 'own' the process of their personal development.

3.4 Self-Development

Self-development encompasses the planned, goal-oriented learning that reinforces and expands the depth and breadth of an individual's knowledge base, self-awareness, and situational awareness to enhance professional competence and meet personal objectives (Department of the Army, 2014). CASAL results previously discussed in this report noted that a majority of civilian leaders rate self-development as effective for preparing them to assume new levels of leadership and responsibility. Additionally, 60% of managers and first line

¹⁶ The percentages of civilian leaders who rate the Army 360/MSAF program effective or very effective for making them more aware of their strengths and developmental needs (72%), improving their leadership capabilities (61%) and improving their unit or organization (47%) are significantly more favorable than ratings by active duty uniformed leaders (53%, 41% and 30%, respectively).

supervisors indicate self-development activities have had a ‘large or great impact’ on their development, while 12% report self-development has had a ‘small, very little, or no impact’ on their development.

Purposes for Self-Development

2014 CASAL respondents were asked to indicate the purpose for which they had engaged in self-development during the past year. Results show that more than half of civilian leaders engaged in self-development for two purposes: to complete mandatory training and to develop new skills. About one-third or more of civilian leaders engaged in self-development to maintain proficiencies in the job and to gain knowledge in new areas unrelated to their current duties (see Table 10). Smaller percentages engaged in self-development to overcome shortcomings in their abilities, to move to another job, to meet promotion criteria, or to satisfy some other objective (e.g., obtain a college degree, self-improvement in general).

Table 10. Reported Purposes for Engaging in Self-Development by Civilian Leaders.

Purposes for Engaging in Self-Development in the Past Year (Rank Ordered by Frequency of Respondents)		
	First Line Supervisors	Managers
1. To complete mandatory training	57%	57%
2. To develop new skills	54%	53%
3. To maintain proficiency in my job	37%	36%
4. To gain knowledge in a new area(s) unrelated to my current duties	33%	38%
5. To overcome shortcomings in my abilities	26%	27%
6. To move to another job	10%	10%
7. To meet promotion criteria	10%	8%
8. Other reason	5%	4%
9. I have not engaged in self-development in the past year	8%	8%

In comparison to results of the 2009 CASAL (Riley & Steele, 2010), slightly smaller percentages of civilian leader respondents now report engaging in self-development to maintain proficiency in their jobs (-7%) and to overcome shortcomings in their abilities (-6%). A positive finding is that the percentage of civilian leaders reporting they have not engaged in self-development in the past year has decreased (-5%) compared to results from 2009 (13% reported not engaging in self-development).

Self-Development Activities

2014 CASAL respondents also selected the types of self-development activities they had completed in the past year.¹⁷ Table 11 presents results reported by managers and first line supervisors.

- The most frequently selected activities (as selected by more than 40% of civilian leaders) include professional reading; attending conferences, seminars, workshops or other professional meetings; and networking or interacting with others (e.g., in person or through other means).
- Other activities commonly selected (about 30% or more) include working to develop or improve a skill, completing continuing education courses, and completing Army-sponsored distance or distributed learning.
- Smaller percentages of respondents (between 10% and 20%) indicate they studied in a new area, sought or volunteered for operational experiences, or took college courses or sought a college degree. Less than 10% attended a resident Army course, completed structured self-development, learned a foreign language, or engaged in other types of activities (e.g., online classes/training, certifications, other training).

These results generally reflect the findings of the 2009 CASAL (Riley & Steele, 2010), which indicated that Army civilians most frequently engaged in professional reading as well as other focused self-study on topics related to their job or personal interests. Civilians also reported taking college courses; pursuing advanced degrees; attending professional military education courses; and interacting with others (e.g., superiors, peers and mentors) as methods of self-development.

¹⁷ CASAL assessed leader engagement in self-development through a list of 14 categories of activities. This refined list is based on the most prominent themes from open-ended comments provided by respondents in past years. The themes provide a useful method for organizing and capturing the information from respondents. However, the diversity of the activities in these options further demonstrates that leader conceptualizations of self-development do not universally align with the Army's definition for this training domain (e.g., some respondents consider CES course completion to be their self-development).

Table 11. Reported Self-Development Activities Completed in the Past Year by Civilian Leaders.

Self-Development Activities CASAL Respondents have Completed in the Past Year (Rank Ordered by Frequency of Respondents)		
	First Line Supervisors	Managers
1. Professional reading	44%	58%
2. Attended conferences, seminars, workshops, or professional meetings	45%	51%
3. Networked or interacted with others (e.g., in person or through online forums, professional society membership)	39%	47%
4. Worked to develop or improve a skill (e.g., physical fitness, improved communication skills)	37%	40%
5. Completed continuing education courses	38%	37%
6. Completed Army-sponsored distance or distributed learning (e.g., nonresident courses, correspondence courses)	29%	29%
7. Studied in a new area	16%	22%
8. Sought or volunteered for operational experiences (e.g., duty assignments, leadership positions)	14%	17%
9. Took college courses or sought a college degree	12%	10%
10. Attended a resident professional military education course	6%	7%
11. Completed Structured Self-Development (SSD)	7%	6%
12. Learned a foreign language	3%	3%
13. Other method	5%	5%
14. No self-development activities in the past year	9%	8%

Time and Other Factors Affecting Self-Development Engagement

Though it was not assessed in the 2014 CASAL, past studies have found that Army civilian perceptions about organizational support for self-development vary. In 2011, more than half of civilian leaders (55%) agreed their organization expected them to participate in self-development other than mandatory training, though only 38% indicated their unit or organization made time available for self-development (Riley et al., 2012). Results of the 2014 CASAL confirm that both time available and stress associated with high workloads are factors keeping civilian leaders from engaging in self-development.

- Overall, slightly more than one-third of managers (37%) and first line supervisors (36%) agree they have sufficient time for self-development in their current assignment, while 45% of each group disagrees they have sufficient time to self-develop.¹⁸

¹⁸ Civilian leader agreement (36%) with the statement 'In my current assignment, I have sufficient time for self-development' is significantly less favorable than active duty uniformed leader agreement (51%).

- Not surprisingly, there is a significant negative relationship between respondents' perceptions regarding the severity of stress from a high workload and agreement there is sufficient time available for self-development ($r = -.43, p < .001$).
- Of civilian leaders who view stress from a high workload as 'a serious problem' (i.e., a rating of 6 or 7 on 7-point scale), two-thirds (69%) disagree they have time to self-develop. Similarly, of those not experiencing stress from high workload (i.e., a rating of 1 or 2 on a 7-point scale), two-thirds (68%) affirm they have sufficient time to self-develop.

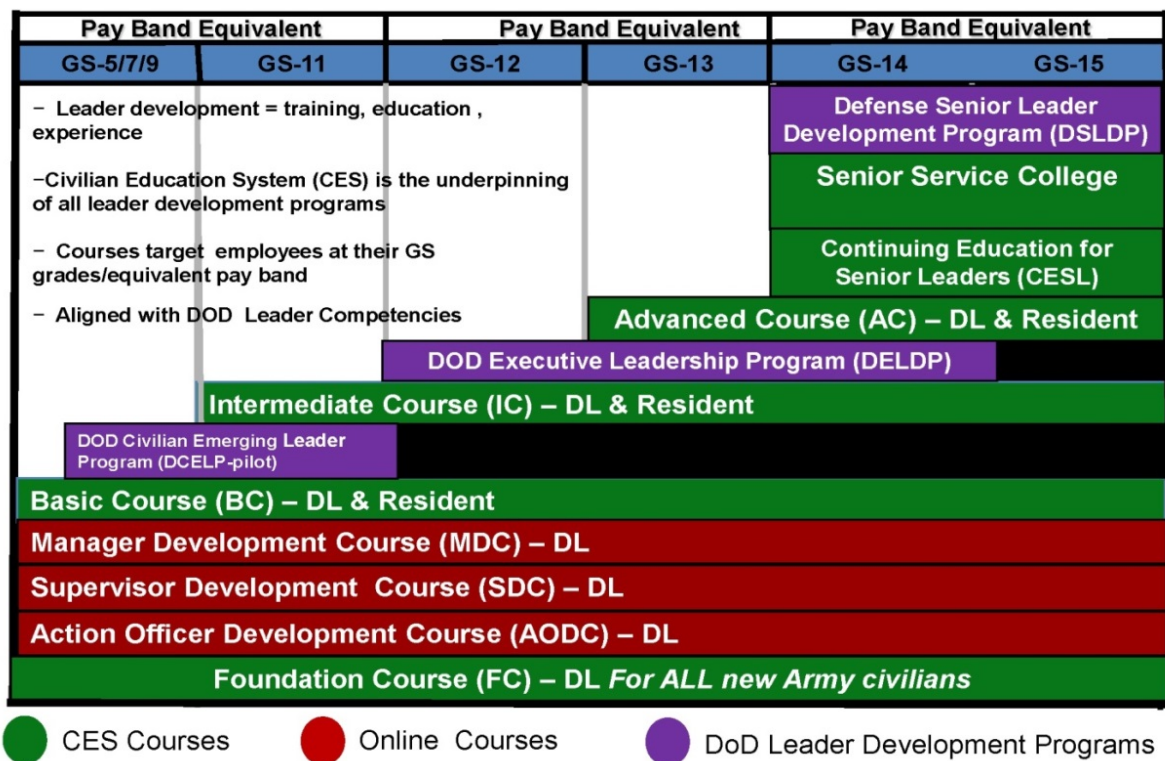
A positive finding is that a majority of civilian leaders report they have engaged in some form of self-development in the past year (only 8% report they have not). However, effective self-development requires a personal commitment to lifelong learning, and should be an active process for all Army leaders. While workload stress and lack of time available are two factors that affect engagement in self-development, other factors include leader self-awareness of strengths and developmental needs; knowing what to do or engage in; and a personal commitment to learning. Reliance on passive learning methods, the lack of a (focused) personal self-development strategy, and an expectation that development is something provided by others (e.g., superiors, or the Army) are pitfalls to leaders' capitalizing on effective self-development. These considerations are especially important for civilian leaders. The 2014 results for this cohort show the most frequently cited purpose for engaging in self-development was 'completion of mandatory training' as opposed to purposes or methods reflecting a personal and tailored self-development strategy.

3.5 Civilian Education System (CES)

The Civilian Education System (CES) provides Army civilians progressive, sequential leader development training and education at key positions throughout their careers. Figure 21 displays a graphical depiction of the Civilian Leader Development Program. CASAL assesses CES and online courses associated with pay band equivalent GS-5 to GS-13.¹⁹ The results discussed in this section reflect ratings by civilian managers and first line supervisors who completed a course between 2013 and 2014. Given the small size of participant samples for each course, results do not include comparisons between years of course completion.

¹⁹ The Action Officer Development Course (AODC) DL was not assessed by the 2013 CASAL.

Figure 21. Overview of Army Civilian Leader Development.



Supervisor Development Course

The Supervisor Development Course (SDC) provides military and civilian supervisors and managers of Army civilians the administration skills for management and basic supervision. The SDC is conducted via distributed learning (DL) and contains lessons on topics mandated by the National Defense Authorization Act of 2010, spanning from workforce planning and merit system principles to performance management. Topics specific to leadership outcomes include creating an engaging work environment, leading change, and coaching, counseling and mentoring. The SDC is a requirement for all new supervisors of Army civilians and must be completed within one year of placement in a supervisory position. The SDC is also required for supervisors as refresher training every three years, and is available to all Army employees as self-development. Given the nature of the SDC as both mandatory and recurring refresher training, the results are discussed here separate from other CES and DL course findings.

Eighty-four percent of civilian managers and first line supervisors surveyed by the 2014 CASAL had completed the SDC (16% report they had not). In the active component, 58% of uniformed leaders who supervise civilians completed the SDC; 42% report they had not, indicating a gap in

the force meeting this training requirement. Forty-three percent of civilian leaders had taken the course more than once (i.e., as refresher training), compared to 34% of uniformed leaders.

The 2014 CASAL captured modest ratings for SDC from civilian and military leaders who recently completed the course (see Table 12). A majority of leaders agree the course is relevant to their current job (66% to 72%), though less than half rate the SDC as effective for improving their leadership capabilities (35% to 46%). Forty-five percent of civilian leaders and 37% of uniformed leaders rate what they learned from the SDC as being ‘of considerable use or extremely useful’ while nearly equal percentages (43% and 45%, respectively) indicate what they learned was ‘of some use’.

Table 12. Ratings for Supervisor Development Course by Recent Graduates (2013-2014).²⁰

Supervisor Development Course (SDC)	Civilian Managers and First Line Supervisors N = 1,721	Active Duty Uniformed Leaders N = 394
Agreement content of the course is relevant to current job	72%	66%
Effectiveness of course at improving leadership capabilities	46%	35%
What was learned is ‘of considerable use’ or ‘extremely useful’	45%	37%

Civilian Education System (CES) Opportunity and Timing

About half of the 2014 CASAL civilian leader sample (53%) reported having attended a CES course in their career, including a small percentage that received constructive credit or a course waiver (about 8%). The balance of civilian managers and supervisors (47%) indicate they have not attended CES in their career. Additionally, nearly two-thirds of non-supervisory civilian employees (65%) indicate they have not completed a CES course.

Between 51% and 62% of recent CES attendees indicate their most recent course occurred at ‘about the right time’ in their career to prepare them for responsibilities they now hold. Very few civilian leaders believe they attended a course too early in their career (1%-3%). In comparison, from one-third to one-half of civilian leaders indicate they attended the Foundation Course (48%), Basic Course (41%), Intermediate Course (40%), Manager Development Course (37%) and Advanced Course (44%) ‘too late’ or ‘much too late’ in their careers.

²⁰ Analyses for the Supervisor Development Course included 1,721 civilian managers and first line supervisors and 394 active duty uniformed leaders. Respondents completed SDC between 2013 and 2014.

Taken together, these results indicate a potential gap in Army civilian leader participation in the institutional education domain of leader development. While a majority of civilian managers and first line supervisors (84%) have completed required online training for supervisors (i.e., SDC), only half have participated in other CES courses, and many who have believe the education occurred too late in their career to support responsibilities they have held.

CES Course Ratings

Civilian managers and first line supervisors who recently completed CES assessed their course experience, the quality of the education received, and the usefulness, relevance and effectiveness of what they learned.²¹ Table 13 presents results for civilian courses as rated by recent graduates.²² A positive finding is that the quality of education received through CES continues to be viewed favorably by most civilian leaders who complete the courses. About two-thirds or more rate the quality of the education received through the courses as ‘good’ or ‘very good.’ Across CES offerings, about half of civilian leaders indicate what they learned in their course was ‘of considerable use/extremely useful’ (49%) while 41% indicate it was ‘of some use’.

The level of rigor and challenge in CES continues to be a potential area for improvement. Just under two-thirds of recent graduates from courses that include a resident phase (i.e., BC, IC and AC) rate the course effective at challenging them to perform at a higher level. In comparison, smaller percentages of civilians that completed (entirely) DL courses (i.e., FC and MDC) rate the courses as effective in this regard. Across the resident courses, just over half (55%-57%) of course graduates agree that activities and activity assessments were sufficiently challenging to separate high performers from low performing students.

Courses with resident phases continue to be rated favorably with regard to the effectiveness of instructors and faculty. A majority of recent graduates of the Basic Course (69%), Intermediate Course (73%) and Advanced Course (67%) agree that course instructors, faculty and staff set an appropriate example by modeling doctrinal leadership competencies and attributes (ADRP 6-22). Recent graduates of these three courses also tend to agree that instructors and faculty provided them with constructive feedback on their leadership capabilities (64%, 71% and 70%, respectively).

²¹ CASAL assesses the Manager Development Course (MDC), an online course, with the same items as the four CES courses. Results for the MDC are presented along with results of the CES courses in this section.

²² Percentages that are bolded and underlined in Table 13 represent areas within civilian courses that received favorable ratings below a threshold of 65% (e.g., agreement, effectiveness, or good/very good quality).

Table 13. Ratings for Civilian Courses by Recent Graduates (2013-2014).²³

	Quality of Education Received (% Good or Very Good)	Effectiveness of course at challenging learner to perform at higher level	Agreement course was sufficiently challenging to separate high and low performers	Effectiveness of course at improving learner leadership capabilities
CES Foundation Course (FC) DL	65%	<u>40%</u>	<u>39%</u>	<u>40%</u>
CES Basic Course (BC) Resident & DL	81%	65%	<u>57%</u>	<u>57%</u>
CES Intermediate Course (IC) Resident & DL	77%	<u>64%</u>	<u>56%</u>	65%
Manager Development Course (MDC) DL	70%	<u>54%</u>	<u>44%</u>	<u>52%</u>
CES Advanced Course (AC) Resident & DL	75%	<u>63%</u>	<u>55%</u>	<u>58%</u>

CES courses have specified learning objectives to enhance civilian skills in leadership, supervision and/or management. Several topics and learning outcomes align with the core leader competencies described in ADRP 6-22. For example, intended outcomes of each course include the following:

- The Basic Course includes content on leading small teams, communicating effectively, and developing, coaching and counseling subordinates.
- The Intermediate Course aims to enhance learner abilities to lead people, manage resources, develop a cohesive organization, and increase civilian abilities to be flexible and resilient while the accomplishing mission.
- The Manager Development Course enhances civilian abilities to manage work and lead people, and focuses on communication, problem-solving and decision making skills.
- The Advanced Course includes content on developing a positive culture and cohesive organization, creating high performing teams and managing resources.

Throughout the progression of courses, common themes in content areas include development of the core leader competencies *Leads Others*, *Communicates*, *Creates a Positive Environment*, *Stewardship of the Profession*, *Develops Others*, and *Gets Results*, among others.

²³ CES course-level analyses included the following samples of civilian respondents by course: Foundation Course – 172; Basic Course – 119; Intermediate Course – 138; Advanced Course – 158. Analyses for the Manager Development Course included 278 civilian leaders. Respondents completed their course between 2013 and 2014.

Civilian leaders continue to report moderately favorable views regarding the effectiveness of CES courses for improving their leadership capabilities. A majority of recent graduates across the Basic Course, Intermediate Course, Manager Development Course and Advanced Course (52%-65%) rate their course effective at improving their leadership capabilities. Across these CES courses, between 9% and 13% of respondents rate any individual course ineffective at improving their leadership capabilities.

The Foundation Course provides an introduction to the Army and orientation to being an Army civilian, and is geared toward new Army civilians of any grade or leadership level. While this DL course includes leadership concepts such as team building, managing conflict and effective communication skills, it is not generally viewed as effective for improving learner leadership capabilities (40% effective and 16% ineffective).

Content Relevance and Usefulness

Table 14 displays CASAL results for civilian leader perceptions about CES courses, including the relevance of instruction for their current duties and the effectiveness of their unit or organization in utilizing or supporting leadership skills they learned in the course. Ratings for CES course relevance fall below a two-thirds favorability threshold for the Foundation Course (56%) and Advanced Course (61%). These two courses also reflect the highest levels of disagreement regarding relevance of content (13% and 23%, respectively) to civilian leaders' duties.

Table 14. Percent of Favorable Ratings for Course Content Relevance and Effectiveness by Civilian Leaders (2013-2014).

	Agreement course content was relevant to current job	Effectiveness of unit/organization in utilizing or supporting leadership skills learned in the course
CES Foundation Course (FC) DL	56%	40%
CES Basic Course (BC)	69%	52%
CES Intermediate Course (IC)	67%	47%
Manager Development Course (MDC) DL	67%	48%
CES Advanced Course (AC)	61%	43%

Another indication of successful transfer of what is learned at courses to assigned duties is the degree with which units and organizations support the leadership skills that civilian leaders attain. Overall, less than half of the respondent sample (46%) rate their unit or organization effective at utilizing or supporting leadership skills learned in the course (37% neither effective nor ineffective). Recent graduates of the Foundation Course and Advanced Course provide the most critical assessments of their organizations in utilizing or supporting what they learned (20% and 24% ineffective, respectively).

Summary of Findings on the Quality of Leader Development

Civilian leader development continues to occur at moderate levels in the Army. Civilian leaders favor the development they receive through operational job experiences and self-development over formal education opportunities. Interpersonal methods of civilian leader development continue to show room for improvement. Over half of civilian leaders are viewed as effective in using proactive methods for developing subordinates, such as assessing developmental needs, providing feedback, coaching subordinates to improve their capabilities, and creating leader development opportunities.

Civilian leader respondents tend to view development as activities that subordinates are referred to, sent to, or directed to do (e.g., resident education, online training, self-study), though some are more proactive and engaged (e.g., provide guidance and feedback). Formal and informal performance counseling occur inconsistently and the perceived impact remains low for most civilian leaders. Most civilian leaders seek or ask for developmental feedback from others only rarely or occasionally. Civilian leader engagement in mentoring lags behind reported levels by uniformed leaders. Less than one-third of managers and first line supervisors (27%) report having a mentor, though twice as many (54%) indicate they provide mentoring to others.

One in five civilian manager and first line supervisor respondents (21%) indicate they have been assessed through the MSAF program at some point in their career, and most generally view the experience as effective for increasing their awareness of their strengths and developmental needs. A majority of civilian leaders report they have pursued self-development in the past year, though the impact on development remains moderate. About half of civilian leaders indicate they engaged in self-development to develop new skills, though nearly an equal percentage did so to complete mandatory training. While important for meeting Army and organizational requirements, the latter purpose reflects passive learning as opposed to an active and tailored pursuit of lifelong learning and development. Civilian leaders commonly cite a lack of available time for self-development as an issue, which is directly related to stress

associated with high workloads, factors that would impact both the purposes and types of self-development activities in which they engage.

A majority of civilian leaders view the CES as providing a good quality of education, though courses receive moderately favorable ratings regarding their effectiveness for improving leadership capabilities. Instructors at resident courses are rated effective at modeling doctrinal core leadership competencies and to a lesser extent providing effective leadership feedback. The level of rigor or challenge posed by all courses continues to show room for improvement, particularly courses offered via DL. CASAL findings point to a potential gap in civilian leader development through institutional education. About half of managers and first line supervisors surveyed have completed a current CES course at some point in their career. Of these recent attendees, between 37% and 48% indicate they completed their respective course too late in their career to prepare them for responsibilities they now hold. As a majority view CES courses as relevant and useful to their assigned duties, there are both opportunities and benefits for increasing course awareness and attendance among the Army Civilian cohort.

Conclusions

The quality of leadership among Army civilians is moderate on five of the ten leadership competencies and has been relatively stable over the past six years. Civilian leaders get results, prepare themselves, demonstrate stewardship of the profession, extend influence outside the chain of command, and communicate. Less than two-thirds of civilian leaders are assessed as effective at leading subordinates, leading by example, building trust, creating a positive environment, and developing others. Leadership skills that show the most room for improvement include developing subordinates, building trust and building effective teams. The demonstration of leader attributes have been at more favorable levels, such as exhibiting confidence and composure and leveraging technical expertise. Total fitness is the lowest rated of the doctrinal leader attributes for Army civilian leaders.

Army civilian managers and first line supervisors exude commitment to their teams and immediate work groups, view their assigned duties as important to their organization, and have confidence and pride in their organizations. Civilian leader morale has leveled off after experiencing a sharp decline in 2013. However, career satisfaction, while favorable, remains at a level below its peak observed five years ago. Working environments and organizational climates are generally supportive of effective leadership, learning and development. Operational climates increasingly tend to reflect favorable aspects of the mission command philosophy in practice (e.g., unit members enabled to determine how best to accomplish their work, allowed to learn from honest mistakes, encouraged to try new and better ways of doing

things). Civilian leaders complete their tasks and missions despite stress experienced from high workloads, a persistent challenge reported by one in three managers and first line supervisors. Army civilians report moderate to high levels of trust in those with whom they work and interact, and attitudes reflect a positive trend compared to past years.

Civilian leader development occurs at a moderate level, and supervisor engagement in subordinate development continues to show room for improvement. Civilian leaders tend to view development as activities that subordinates are referred to or directed to do (e.g., online training, resident education, and self-study). About half of civilian leaders are rated effective at developing their subordinates through methods described in leadership doctrine (e.g., assessing developmental needs, providing feedback, creating or calling attention to leader development opportunities). Formal and informal performance counseling occurs inconsistently and the perceived impact on development for many remains low. Increasing the frequency of day-to-day interactions in which leaders talk with their subordinates about how they are doing in their work, how they can improve their job performance and how they can prepare for future roles will benefit the ongoing development of managers and first line supervisors. Currently, most civilian leaders seek or ask for developmental feedback from others occasionally or rarely. One in four civilian leaders reports having a mentor.

Operational job experiences and self-development continue to be favored methods of development. A majority of civilian leaders have completed the required Supervisor Development Course, though its effectiveness for improving leadership capabilities remains low. Only half of civilian leaders have completed other CES courses. While a majority views the quality of their CES experience as good or very good, many believe that receiving the education earlier would have benefitted their current duties. CES effectiveness in offering rigor and challenge and in improving leadership capabilities could be enhanced. CES courses offered entirely via DL are rated lowest in terms of leadership improvement.

Civilian leaders report a moderate impact from self-development, and many indicate sufficient time is not available in their current assignment. Managers and first line supervisors engage in professional reading, networking with others, and skill improvement, but also cite mandatory training as a primary purpose for self-development. This reflects a tendency for passive development as opposed to an active and tailored pursuit of learning and skill enhancement. Participation in the Army 360/MSAF program remains limited (1 in 5 civilian leaders) but is gradually increasing. Individual benefits of the MSAF experience (e.g., increased self-awareness) are rated well by those civilian leaders who have participated.

Considerations for Improvement

Developing others has consistently been the lowest rated competency for six years that Army civilian leadership has been assessed with CASAL. There are consistent relationships among data that show greater levels of perceived mission accomplishment, trust, engagement, and commitment for personnel who see their leaders investing in their development. So leader development for civilians is a prime target to find ways to improve those levels.

Leader development has a different meaning for Army civilians than it does for Army uniformed leaders. Most Army civilians, like other federal employees, are at or near a fully capable level of performance when hired for their jobs. Retaining one's federal job is not contingent on being promoted, and provisions for Army courses and developmental or broadening assignments are not as widespread among civilians as for uniformed leaders. The most direct path to improving development of civilian leadership can occur through the opportunities that align best with the conditions of civilian employment. Self-initiated, multi-source assessment and feedback can be used by Army civilians to increase their awareness of their strengths and developmental needs. Supervisor job feedback and within-job stretch assignments are accessible choices for development that Army civilians can be proactive in requesting if they are not made aware of the opportunities. The Army has published new doctrine on leader development in FM 6-22 (Department of the Army, 2015). The doctrine provides guidance on a philosophy for learning and development and ways to plan and incorporate developmental activities into already occurring day-to-day operations. The doctrine also provides guidance on how to assess levels of leadership abilities and what can be done to improve them.

On average, less than two thirds of civilian superiors are meeting leadership expectations based on effectiveness ratings given by their subordinates. Thus it is doubly important to identify and implement practices for improving civilian leadership. While Army civilian education courses are evaluated continually, it may be appropriate to have an in-depth review of their content, the impact they have on leadership improvement, and how broadly they impact Army leaders. Materials are already available that identify the core leadership requirements that the Army expects its leaders to master, as well as materials about how to improve in those areas. Army eLearning, the FORSCOM leader development toolbox and the MSAF Virtual Improvement Center provide self-development resources focused on leadership topics.

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